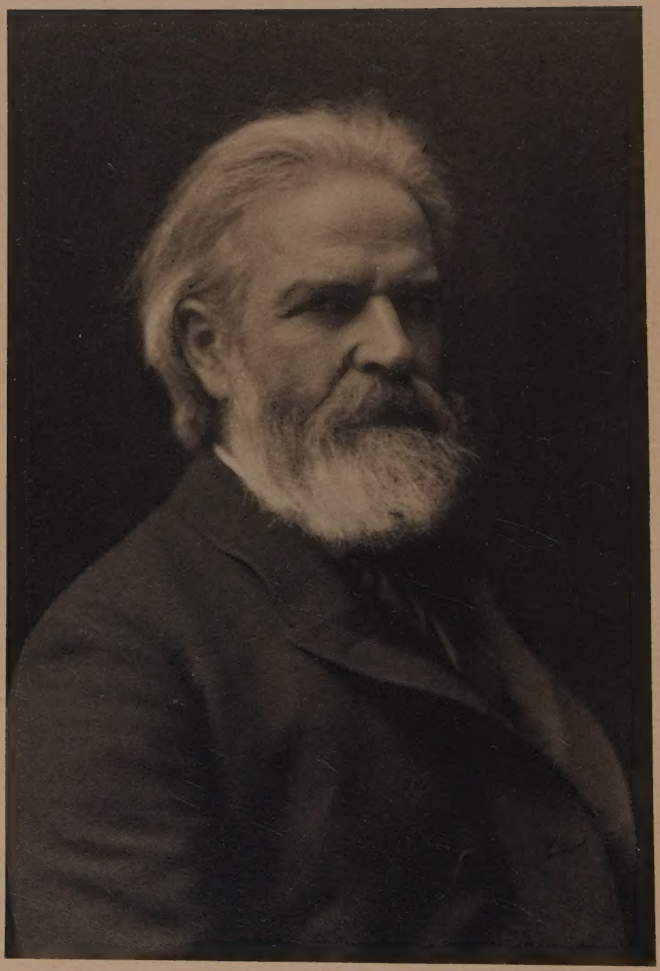
BLUE MOUNTAIN COLLEGE
LIBRARY

No. 6489

BLUE MOUNTAIN COLLEGE LIBRARY
3 2620 00021597 7



EDWIN MARKHAM
After an original photograph from life.

THE REAL AMERICA IN ROMANCE

By

JOHN R. MUSICK

READING COURSES

Forming with the Romances a Complete and Authentic History of the United States

Comprising copious explanatory notes, supplementary historical and biographical details and brief outlines of the history of those European Countries which have chiefly influenced American development

Prepared Under the Advice and Direction of

EDWIN MARKHAM

Author of "The Man With the Hoe and Other Poems," "Lincoln, and Other Poems," by

SCOTT ROBINSON

WM. H. WISE & COMPANY

NEW YORK — 1907 — CHICAGO

973
M98r
v.14

COPYRIGHT, 1906 AND 1907, BY
FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY
Entered at Stationers' Hall, London, England
[Printed in the United States of America]
Published January, 1907

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
Edwin Markham—Photogravure.	*Frontispiece*
The Notes and how to use.	1
Introduction to First Course.	7
Outline of First Course.	12
Notes for Volume I.	15
Questions for Volume I.	25
Notes for Volume II.	28
Questions for Volume II.	47
Outline of Second Course.	53
Notes for Volume III.	55
Questions for Volume III.	78
Notes for Volume IV.	80
Questions for Volume IV.	100
Outline of Third Course.	105
Notes for Volume V.	107
Questions for Volume V.	131
Notes for Volume VI.	133
Questions for Volume VI.	148
Outline of Fourth Course.	153
Notes for Volume VII.	154
Questions for Volume VII.	169
Notes for Volume VIII.	170
Questions for Volume VIII.	194

Outline of Fifth Course. 199
Notes for Volume IX. 200
Questions for Volume IX. 242
Notes for Volume X. 244
Questions for Volume X. 278
Outline of Sixth Course. 283
Notes for Volume XI. 285
Questions for Volume XI. 300
Notes for Volume XII. 301
Questions for Volume XII. 330
Notes for Volume XIII. 332
Questions for Volume XIII. 336

THE NOTES, AND HOW TO USE THEM

The REAL AMERICA IN ROMANCE may be used in several ways. The volumes may be placed in the hands of young persons to be read simply as stories, allowing them to acquire incidentally such historical information as may linger in their memories; they may be used by independent students, young or old, who wish to gain a general knowledge of the history of our country in an interesting and easy manner; or they may be used by teachers and parents in class work. It is as an aid to teachers and independent students that the Notes and Reading Courses in connection with the REAL AMERICA IN ROMANCE have been devised.

The several stories which comprise the series present, in one way and another, all the main facts of American history; but naturally a story can not be overloaded with details of events occurring outside of its immediate sphere. Such additional material as may be necessary to give a more comprehensive view of the course of events, but which could not consistently be placed in the general narrative, has been thrown into these notes. Occasionally, also, where events have been so complicated as to make it difficult to trace their exact relation to one another among the incidents of the story, a

brief historical outline to serve as a guide has been presented.

The copious lists of questions have been designed to direct the student's attention to the specific historical data revealed by the story, and to impress an orderly idea of the development of events on his mind.

Every subject alluded to and not fully explained in the text has been dealt with in the form of a note. From the notes a great many interesting facts not directly relating to American history may be learned. An inquiring student will find them very illuminating and suggestive.

In the text it has been impossible to relate the entire career of many characters mentioned. Whenever they are of historical importance, extra biographical material of this kind has been added in the notes.

The previous and contemporary history of various European countries was of great importance in shaping the history of America. It would, of course, be impossible to present a complete outline of the history of Europe in the brief space available, but sufficiently full sketches of those European countries which have most profoundly affected America have been placed in the notes in order to make clear the effect on affairs in the New World of given events happening in Europe.

The notes are arranged according to volumes and pages, the idea being that they will be read by

the student as he advances from page to page. It is important that they be used progressively in this way, for explanatory matter is always inserted at that point in the notes at which it is deemed to be most effective and illuminating.

The teacher may employ the novels either for regular lessons or may make use of them for class readings. They will be found highly satisfactory for class readings, and the teacher may either read personally, or allow the class to take up the reading in turn, in either case reserving the volume of notes herself and interjecting at convenient moments the explanatory matter suggested by them. Parents interested in the education of their children may follow the same plan in the family circle, making use of the list of questions accompanying each section. This will provide a delightful and profitable means of home entertainment. The elder members of the family will find in it a pleasing mode of refreshing their own knowledge of history, which has so sad a tendency toward rusting. To those who take up the study independently, the notes will serve in place of a teacher.

A word remains to be said regarding the attitude of the student in taking up the study of history thus clothed in romance. The young readers will promptly become in imagination the youthful heroes of the several stories. This will be wholesome, and, besides stimulating the imagination of the children, will enable them in a measure to see

history from contemporary standpoints. It will enable the young reader to get on the same plane with the men of history, and to realize that they were only men after all, and that they lived and acted with much the same motives as the people he sees around him to-day. He sees them taking their parts in a consistent story and acting against a clear background of every-day life. In short, they become real people to him. The student hears them speak, sees them mingling as men among men and beholds them actuated by all the impulses of common men, good and bad. Moreover, the frequent subordination of historical characters to the romantic and the representation of them in their relations with minor individuals helps the reader to realize that history was not enacted exclusively by the few grand personages who fight battles, make treaties, and deliver speeches in textbooks; but that whole peoples took part in it, and that the lives of individuals were deeply affected by the course of events. To put it epigrammatically, he will realize that history is nothing more than the present pushed backward.

Not the least of the advantages of studying history by means of this interesting series of stories lies in the precision they give to the chronological ideas of the reader. Mere dates are not of great consequence, but it is important that the historical student should have a clear conception of the time-relation of events to each other. This is very diffi-

cult to obtain from the regular text-books, for it is only by a strong effort of the imagination that an event can be made to assume due proportions by the enumeration of dates; but in the lives of the successive heroes of the several stories of the Columbian series, following each other as they do from generation to generation, the reader has a definite time-standard to which he may refer successive events and periods, and by which to estimate their duration.

The story form into which the recital is thrown is a further aid to the acquisition of a sense of the chronological relation of events, for when one in imagination has taken part in a prolonged series of incidents, the mind naturally associates with them an idea of extension that no mere assertion of the elapsed time can convey. The story side of the books, it will thus be seen, is of great importance, and while the skilful teacher will emphasize the historical features, she will not seek to discourage interest in the romance.

There may be a tendency on the part of some students to place the fictitious characters of the romance in the same rank as those of actual history. No bright student, however, will need to be told twice which are the real and which the fictitious characters; and it will be an easy matter to make him understand that the imaginary characters, for the most part, represent the common people—that their adventures, sufferings, and

pleasures are typical of the daily lives of those who made up the bulk of the population, and that their speech, costumes, dwellings, and general affairs are those of the period.

Some students will be troubled to know whether these stories are "true." To such it will be necessary to explain that practically everything concerning the historical characters is literally true, so far as the truth can be ascertained, and that, while the boy and girl heroes and their friends may never have lived, their adventures are such as might have happened to any person then living in similar circumstances, and are, therefore, strictly true, and quite as much historical as that part of the narrative which deals with grander personages.

NOTE.—Should any question arise as to whether a given character belongs to the historical or the romantic portion of the narrative, it may be generally decided by reference to the "Historical Index" which accompanies each volume at the end and in which the historical characters alone are mentioned.

INTRODUCTION TO THE FIRST COURSE

Comprising Volumes I and II

The history of the United States, widely as it may have since diverged, sprang directly from the history of several European countries—Spain, France, Holland, and, principally, England. In order clearly to understand the causes of subsequent events, it is necessary to know in what general direction ran these main currents of history before they branched off to give rise to the great American republic.

It was through Spain that European civilization first touched this continent, but there is good reason to believe that some of the Vikings—those Scandinavian sea-rovers who, stripped of romance, were plain pirates—sailing from Iceland about 1000 A.D., settled for a brief time in the northeastern part of America, naming the country Vineland. There is, however, no absolute proof of such colonization. Columbus, in any case, is the true discoverer of America, for, with his first voyage in 1492, begins American history. It is worth noting that the race from which these Vikings sprang, the Northmen or Norsemen, subdued and settled Normandy, in France, whence they sallied forth under William the Conqueror in

1066, and subdued the Anglo-Saxons of England. The union of Normans and Saxons afterward gave rise to the English race and produced our language.

In the time of Columbus a part of Spain was still under the dominion of the Moors, who had come over from Africa and conquered a part of the country in 711. Later they advanced well into France, but were hurled back by Charles Martel, the famous grandfather of Charlemagne. This invasion of Spain and France marked the extreme northern limit to which was pushed the great wave of conquest that Mohammed initiated when he took up the sword to extend the religion he had founded about 622 A.D. The Arabians who embraced Mohammedanism were known generally as Saracens, and, besides Syria and Palestine, they conquered Egypt, Northern Africa, Sicily, and Spain.

In Spain these Arabs were called Moors. Their civilization was advanced. The arts and sciences had already been highly cultivated among them when the greater part of Christian Europe was still sunken in gross ignorance and superstition. The Arabic names of many of the stars testify to their astronomical learning. Our Arabic notation, with which every pupil does his sums in arithmetic, indicates their mathematical genius. Our word Admiral, which comes from a Saracenic title meaning "lord of the sea," suggests their former naval prowess. Spain still possesses some remnants of the wonderfully beautiful architecture

with which they adorned the land they conquered, such as the Alhambra in Granada, and the Giralda Tower in Seville. Of the latter the Madison Square Garden tower in New York is a copy. It thus happens that our metropolis possesses a monument to the great Moorish Calif, Almansur, the builder of the original.

Spain at first formed part of the Roman Empire, and the great emperor Trajan was a Spaniard by birth. It was afterward overrun by Gothic tribes, allied to those who founded France and Italy. These Goths were practically driven out of the country by the Saracens, but they managed to maintain a foothold in the northern part, and gradually expanded the little kingdom of the Asturias into those of Leon, Navarre, Castile, Aragon, and Portugal. Slowly the Moors were driven back, and in 1212, by the fierce battle of Tolosa, were stripped of all their dominions in Spain, except Granada. The union of Aragon and Castile, under Ferdinand and Isabella, made possible the final conquest of the Moors, and in the same year that Columbus discovered America they were definitely subjugated.

Spain then entered on a career of aggrandizement that culminated under Charles I. (who is better known by his title of Charles V. as Holy Roman Emperor). He was the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella. After his election as Holy Roman Emperor (see note, Charles V., Vol.

II., page 167), he ruled the vast dominions of Spain in America, as well as what is now Spain, Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, and part of Italy and France. The Spaniards became the most successful soldiers and sailors of that day in consequence of such victories as those of the famous warrior Gonsalvo de Cordova, in Italy (about 1500), of Charles V.'s forces over Francis I. of France, at Pavia (1525), and of his son, Don John of Austria, over the Turks, at the great naval battle of Lepanto (1571). They also achieved notable intellectual victories, and the names of Cervantes, the author of the immortal "Don Quixote," and Valasquez, the incomparable painter, have outlasted Spain's martial glories. The youthful mind is naturally stirred by battle stories, but war is wanton destruction at best. It is not great generals, but great thinkers, statesmen, scientists, writers, and painters that make a nation truly great.

After Charles V. abdicated, in 1555, a rapid period of decline set in. His son, Philip II., was a gloomy and fanatical tyrant. Under him Holland began its heroic struggle for liberty, and England humbled the naval pride of Spain by destroying (in 1588) "the Invincible Armada" he had sent out to conquer her, while Sir Francis Drake "singed the Spanish King's beard," as he humorously put it, by burning the shipping in the harbor of Cadiz. Spanish commerce with the

New World suffered terribly at the hands of such freebooters as Drake, Hawkins, and Grenville, who preyed mercilessly upon Spanish ships bearing treasure home from America, incidentally performing prodigies of valor and daring worthy a nobler cause.

The succession to the Spanish throne became the cause of a general European war after Charles II. died, in 1700. Napoleon seized the crown in 1808, and gave it to his brother Joseph, but the Spaniards resisted the French with great ferocity, and, under command of the Duke of Wellington, joined the English in a war which resulted in the expulsion of the French and became one of the principal causes of Napoleon's overthrow.

During the early part of the nineteenth century the Spanish colonies of America—in which were comprised the present countries of Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and Paraguay—threw off their allegiance to Spain, and in 1899 the United States, after a short conflict, stripped her of her last great possessions, Cuba and the Philippines.

OUTLINE OF THE FIRST COURSE

Comprising Volumes I and II

From the Discovery of America Until the Death of De Soto in 1542.

First Reading. Vol. I, pages 1-40.

Spain before the voyage of Columbus—Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella—The Moors in Spain.

Second Reading. Vol. I, pages 41-77.

Arrival of Columbus in Spain to enlist the sovereigns in his projected voyage—His previous efforts, hopes and disappointments—Before the Council at Salamanca—Reasons for his belief in the success of his plan to reach China by sailing westward—Unfavorable report of the Council and decision of Columbus to depart for France.

Third Reading. Vol. I, pages 78-112.

Columbus at La Rabida—Meeting with the Pinzons—Columbus summoned to Granada—The conquest of Granada—Columbus unfolds his plans before Queen Isabella—Failure of negotiations—Columbus decides to finally abandon Spain.

Fourth Reading. Vol. I, pages 113-143.

St. Angel intercedes with Isabella on behalf of Columbus—Columbus again recalled—Funds raised for the expedition—Articles of agreement with Columbus signed at Santa Fé.

Fifth Reading. Vol. I, pages 144-180.

Preparation of the expedition at Palos—Efforts of the Pinzons—Sailing of the squadron—Mishap to the Pinta—Crew terrified by the volcanic peak of Teneriffe—Columbus first observes the variation of the compass—First indications of distant land—Various terrifying phenomena—Crew mutinies.

Sixth Reading. Vol. I, pages 181-218.

The mutiny quelled—Series of false reports of land—Flight of birds causes Columbus to change his course—Undoubted evidences of the proximity of land—Land announced from the Pinta—Landing of Columbus at San Salvador—Discovery of Cuba—Martin Alonzo Pinzon's desertion with the Pinta.

Seventh Reading. Vol. I, pages 219-255.

Discovery of Hispaniola (Hayti)—Wreck of the Santa Maria—Fortress La Navidad founded—Columbus decides to return to Spain and garrisons La Navidad—Return of the Pinta with alluring reports of gold—Columbus visits what he supposes to be the Island of the Amazons—The tempestuous return voyage.

Eighth Reading. Vol. I, pages 255-301.

Columbus reaches the Azores—His treatment by King John of Portugal at Lisbon—Arrival at Palos—Reappearance of the Pinta—Death of Martin Alonzo Pinzon—The triumphal journey of Columbus to Seville and Barcelona—Columbus honored by Isabella—Columbus makes the egg stand on end.

Ninth Reading. Vol. I, pages 302-345.

Coat of arms bestowed on Columbus—Preparations by Columbus for a second voyage—Columbus appointed Viceroy of the Indies—Noble adventurers flock to join the fleet at Cadiz—The embarkation—Conflict with the Indians at Santa Cruz—La Navidad found in ruins with evidences of the massacre of the garrison—Subsequent voyages and closing years of Columbus.

Tenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 1-34.

Quarrel between Ojeda and Nicuesa over their respective grants in Central and South America—Cortez and Pizarro in San Domingo—Sailing of Ojeda's expedition—Balboa

smuggles himself aboard Encisco's ship—Pizarro at San Sebastian—Foundation of Darien—Balboa in authority—Death of Nicuesa—Balboa and Fulvia.

Eleventh Reading. Vol. II, pages 35-70.

Balboa's operations on the Isthmus—His discovery of the Pacific—Ponce de Leon in Florida—The New World named "America"—Conquest of Cuba by Velasquez—Negro slavery—Quarrels of Cortez with Velasquez.

Twelfth Reading. Vol. II, pages 71-106.

Balboa superseded by Pedrarias—Execution of Balboa—Panama founded—Discovery of Mexico by Grijalva—Cortez appointed to conquer Mexico—Attempt of Velasquez to intercept Cortez.

Thirteenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 107-135.

Spanish oppression of the natives—Doña Marina and Cortez—Traditions of the Aztecs—Ambassadors sent by Montezuma—Vera Cruz founded.

Fourteenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 136-182.

Advance of Cortez into the interior of Mexico—Meeting of Montezuma and Cortez—Occupation of Mexico City and seizure of Montezuma—Narvaez sent to supersede Cortez—Swift march of Cortez to Cempoalla and defeat of Narvaez.

Fifteenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 183-223.

Disastrous expedition of Narvaez to Florida—Pizarro's first exploration of the coast of Peru.

Sixteenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 223-265.

Pizarro and Cortez in Spain—Pizarro commissioned to conquer Peru—The Incas—Civil war in Peru—Foundation of San Miguel.

Seventeenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 266-299.

Spanish advance on Caxamarca—Crossing the Andes—Pizarro's seizure of the Inca Atahualpa—Atahualpa's ransom—Execution of Atahualpa.

Eighteenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 300-333.

Pizarro crowns Toparca Inca—Pizarro occupies Cuzco—Ceremonial attending an Incan coronation—Peruvians defeated at Xauxa—Pizarro and Almagro—Murder of Pizarro.

Nineteenth Reading. Vol. II, pages 334-365.

De Soto's landing at Tampa Bay—Indians harass his march—De Soto's explorations in the interior while in search for gold—Bloody battles with the Indians near Mobile Bay—The winter of 1540-1541—Discovery of the Mississippi.

Twentieth Reading. Vol. II, pages 366-389.

Further explorations of De Soto—His death and strange burial—Moscoso leads the remnants of the ill-fated expedition back to Cuba.

NOTES FOR THE FIRST COURSE

Volume I

Page 2. The Cid.

The great national hero of Spain, most of whose reputed prodigious achievements are legendary. He was, however, an historic character, and the mighty deeds attributed to him have foundation in fact. He served Spaniards and and Moors alike. His title of Cid is Moorish. The Spaniards called him El Campeador, the Champion, and recited his exploits against the Moors in the earliest of their epic poems. His real name was Ruy Diaz de Bivar. He was born about 1040 and died in 1099.

Page 3. Enrique IV.

For the benefit of advanced students, it may be well to add a few details regarding the "trouble with Enrique (or Henry) IV." referred to on this page. Enrique IV. was a brother of Isabella. He had a daughter, against whom a party in the kingdom alleged illegitimacy. The final result of the ensuing conflict, after prolonged intrigue, was the proclamation of Isabella as successor to Enrique, and her accession to the throne as Queen of Castile after his death, in 1474. Enrique had tried to force her to marry the Marquis of Villena, but in defiance of her brother she married her cousin, Ferdinand of Aragon, whom she seems to have deeply loved. This alliance had a profound effect on European history, and may with some truth be said to be the first event in the history of America. She is greatly revered by the Spaniards, and is one of the noblest characters of history.

Page 9. Marco Polo.

A Venetian traveler who, in 1271, when seventeen, was taken by his father and uncle to China, where he entered the service of Kublai Khan, one of the early Mongolian Emperors of China. The account of his travels, which he dictated while in prison in Genoa, first revealed China and Eastern Asia to Europeans. His stories of the wealth of these countries awakened profound interest in them. It was the desire to discover a sea route to China—or Cathay, as Polo called it—that prompted the voyage of Columbus.

Page 15. Iberia.

The ancient name of the Spanish peninsula.

Page 15. Saturnalia.

A Roman religious festival in honor of the god Saturn. Even slaves were allowed license on that day. Unrestrained rioting often took place, and thus has given the word an

evil significance. The festival took place in December, and some Christian customs have been traced back to the Saturnalia.

Page 17. Achillean.

From Achilles, the greatest of the legendary Greek heroes in the Trojan war. His name is synonymous with superhuman exploits, but he was given to sulking and fierce outbursts of passion.

Page 29. Alhambra.

A palace and stronghold built by the Moors on a hill above the city of Granada. A portion of it still remains. Its splendors have been described by Washington Irving in "The Alhambra."

Page 41. Columbus.

Here it will be well to emphasize some of the historical lessons regarding Columbus that may be overlooked by the student in following the story.

Columbus was a native of Genoa, which, during the middle ages, was the rival of Venice for the maritime supremacy of the world. He thus from childhood had been brought in contact with maritime affairs. He was in no sense a learned man, but he had read widely and became familiar with the writings of the great travelers of that period, including Marco Polo. The distance that these men had traveled to the eastward was known, and, as the circumference of the world had been computed by the Alexandrian mathematician, Ptolemy, as early as the second century after the birth of Christ, Columbus began to reflect on the portion of the globe as yet unaccounted for, and conceived the idea of sailing westward to the spot that had already been reached by traveling eastward.

Altho at the time of Columbus most people believed the world to be flat, it had long been held to be a sphere. The Greek writer Strabo, who died 24 B.C., had stated

his belief that the world was in the form of a globe, and, tho ignorant theologians had declared the world flat, because they thought the Bible said it was, learned men had never agreed with the popular misconception. Ptolemy, through lack of accurate instruments, had computed the circumference of the globe at one-third less than it actually is. This was a fortunate error, for it made the plan of Columbus appear easier than it really was. Columbus corresponded regarding his idea with Toscanelli, the Italian geographer, who pronounced it feasible, and assured him that he could reach Cipango (Japan) and Cathay (China) by sailing westward about 3,000 miles. He also provided him with the charts which he afterward used.

Columbus was then living in Lisbon and tried to interest the King of Portugal in his project, but the Portuguese at that time were engrossed in their own plan of reaching the East Indies by rounding the south coast of Africa, in which they were successful under Vasco da Gama, in 1497. Columbus, of course, never reached China. In 1477 Columbus made a voyage to Iceland, where some think he heard about the reputed discovery of America by the Norsemen. He also made other expeditions which gave him ample experience as a navigator.

It will thus be seen that the voyage of Columbus was not wholly an expedition into the unknown. It was based on scientific calculations and previous discovery, but it required undaunted heroism and steadfast conviction to carry the plan into execution. Columbus is rightly ranked among the world's greatest men.

Page 51. Aristotle.

The most famous of the Greek philosophers. His writings exercised a profound influence when learning was revived in the middle ages, and it is worth noting that it was through Latin translations of Aristotle by the Moorish

scholar Averroes (born at Cordova, Spain, in 1126) that many Christian students learned of his philosophy.

Page 59. Dominican.

So called from Saint Dominic, a Spaniard, who founded the order of the Dominicans. They were monks who were vowed to poverty and devoted themselves to preaching. They became an exceedingly powerful order. Four of the popes were Dominicans. They became very prominent in the religious affairs of Spanish America, and Las Casas, the Mexican bishop, and champion of the Indians against the cruelties of the Spanish conquerors, referred to later in this series, was a Dominican.

Page 67. Pliny.

A great Roman writer on Natural Science. His death was brought about by his eagerness to observe closely the eruption of Vesuvius which destroyed Pompeii.

Page 70. Epicurus.

A Greek philosopher (342-270 B.C.). Our word epicure is derived from his name, on account of his teaching that pleasure was the supreme object in life; but the pleasure he contemplated was of a nobler order than that indicated by the term epicure.

Page 73. Copernicus.

A Polish astronomer who first expounded (1543) the theory, already suggested by some of the early Greek philosophers, that the earth and other planets revolve around the sun. The Ptolemaic theory, which was universally held at the time of this story, stated the reverse; *i.e.*, that the earth is the center of the universe, and that the sun and stars revolve around it.

Page 73. Ptolemy.

The proper name is Claudius Ptolemæus. He was the best known of the many astronomers, mathematicians and geographers who flourished at Alexandria. He propounded the theory of the movements of the heavenly bodies about the earth which held undisputed sway from the time of its publication (about 150 A.D.) until its overthrow by Copernicus. This theory was called the Ptolemaic after its author. The fact that his principal work is still known by its Arabic title of "Almagest" is another reminder of the intellectual activity of the Arabs.

Page 103. Sir John Mandeville.

At the time of Columbus, Mandeville was thought to have been a genuine traveler, but it is now known that the writings which bear his name were compilations from accounts written by others, and that there was no such person as John Mandeville. The work attributed to him, however, had great influence in stimulating travel to the East in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

Page 103. Seneca.

A celebrated Roman philosopher, who was tutor to the infamous Emperor Nero, and later exercised for a time virtual control of the government. He committed suicide 65 A.D., by command of Nero.

Page 129. Diego Columbus.

This is the only child of Columbus of whom anything is known. Columbus is thought to have had three children by his wife Felipa Moñiz, whom he married in 1471. Diego Columbus figures in the early history of the Spanish colonies in the New World, and the reader will meet him again in Volume II.

Page 137. Grand Khan of Tartary.

Marco Polo had told about Kublai Khan, one of the Tartar rulers of China

Page 144. Miguel.

Advanced students will of course recognize in Miguel and his employer, Sir Garcia, imaginary characters typifying the evil influences at work against Columbus, and not historical persons. It is well to note, also, that Columbus' own report of the voyage makes no mention of mutiny or of any especially exciting events, tho many writers have represented it as having been exceedingly perilous.

Page 152. Santa Maria.

This vessel, the largest of the squadron commanded by Columbus, was only 75 feet in extreme length and her tonnage was only 125 tons. Yachts of the type which race for the America's Cup now measure about 125 feet over all, and a seagoing vessel of 500 tons is regarded as a small craft to-day. There are now several transatlantic liners of 20,000 tons and over.

Page 170. Variation of the Compass.

This phenomenon, now familiar, and allowed for by navigators, tho still not wholly understood, was naturally first observed by Columbus; for hitherto no ship had continued along the same parallel of latitude for so long a time. He noted that the compass, which in Europe points to the east of the Pole Star, was turning to the west of it, and as the compass had formerly been supposed to point always in the same direction, the discovery was a terrifying one. The compass was introduced into Europe from China. A Moorish writer speaks of it as early as 853 A.D.

Page 175. Sargasso Sea.

The masses of seaweed referred to on this page characterize the "Sargasso Sea," a vast and comparatively still expanse of the Atlantic Ocean. It collects great quantities of drift of all kinds, and the seaweed Sargassum, from which it

derives its name, grows abundantly in its calm waters. Ships avoid this region.

Page 221. Cacique.

The title given to their chiefs by the Indians of this part of America.

Page 234. La Navidad.

So called because Columbus landed there on Christmas Day—the day of the nativity of Christ. It was the first Spanish settlement in America, but Isabella, which was founded by Columbus on his second voyage, in 1493, thirty miles from the site of La Navidad, was the first European town planted in America.

Page 236. "Catholic Sovereigns."

The title conferred by the pope on Ferdinand and Isabella was that of "Catholic Majesties." The King of Spain is still called "His Most Catholic Majesty."

Page 243. Slaves.

In connection with this incident, it must not be forgotten that Columbus himself, on his second visit to Hispaniola, proposed an extensive slave-trade to Ferdinand and Isabella, and personally began it.

Page 245. Amazons.

According to the Greek legend, a race of female warriors who excluded men from their state, and inhabited the coast of the Black Sea. The Indians of America, strange to say, had a similar myth. Columbus never knew the real nature of the land he had discovered. He persisted to the end in the belief that his discoveries were outlying islands of Cathay.

Page 254. Our Lady of Loretto.

The Virgin Mary, whose house, according to the legend, was taken from Nazareth by angels and set down at Loretto, near Ancona, in Italy, in 1294. It was, and still is, a great resort for pilgrims.

Page 276. Vespucius.

It is strange that this continent bears not the name of Columbus, but that of Amerigo Vespucci, a navigator obscure and unworthy the great dignity and honor chance has conferred upon him. We have only his own word for the four voyages of discovery which he claims to have made to the New World. It was an equally obscure German, Martin Waldseemüller, who suggested, in a book famous only for that suggestion, that this continent should be called America, after Amerigo Vespucci, or Americus Vespucius, according to the Latin form of the name.

Page 285. Vincente Yañez Pinzon.

Pinzon continued an honorable career of exploration after the sad close of his brother's life, as narrated in this chapter. In 1500 he crossed the equator, being the first Spaniard to do so, and discovered Brazil and the mouth of the Amazon. He also made two other voyages to America. He died at Palos in 1524.

Page 345. Columbus.

The great navigator made four voyages in all, but the second marks the close of his triumphs. He had expected to find that discoveries of gold had been made by the colony at Fort Navidad since his departure, and the real state of affairs was therefore all the more depressing. He made expeditions to the interior of the island in search of gold, which were unsuccessful, but sent back confident predictions to Spain on the strength of assurances by the natives that gold was to be found farther on. He also

sowed the seeds of disaster by sending shiploads of slaves to Spain and imposing an impossible tribute of gold on the natives. Treasure was the great object of all the Spanish explorers, and they were all haunted by the idea that somewhere in the country they would find great masses of gold. Being disappointed in his search in Hispaniola, he took to the sea again, hoping to find the mainland of China and gold in abundance. He found no gold, and his sailors mutinied and forced him to return, but not before he had discovered Jamaica. During his absence Boyle (page 326) had returned to Europe, and given such a distressing account of the state of affairs on the island that a royal agent was sent out to investigate, and Columbus determined to return to Spain to plead his cause in person, arriving in Cadiz in 1496.

Ferdinand and Isabella were still favorably disposed toward him. They received him cordially, and supplied him with the means to fit out a new expedition. He started on this voyage in 1498, having had great difficulty in getting a crew on account of the unfavorable reports that had preceded him. On this voyage he discovered the mainland of South America, the Orinoco River, and Trinidad. When he reached Hispaniola he found matters in a still more wretched condition than when he left, and was forced to make an ignominious agreement with Francisco Roldan, who had headed an insurrection against Diego, the brother of Columbus, who had been left in command of the island by Columbus during his absence. Another revolt followed, and little gold having been sent back as an offset to the dark reports that continued to reach Europe, Francisco de Bobadilla (or Bovadilla) was sent out as commissioner, armed with authority that enabled him to send Columbus back to Spain in chains (1500). The strange report of his third voyage that he sent back, in which he puts forward the theory that the world is pear shaped, suggests that Columbus was mentally unbalanced at this time.

After reaching Spain he was immediately released, but was discredited, and appealed in vain to be reinstated in his former authority and dignity. He succeeded, however, tho with great difficulty, in fitting out a new fleet of four ships, and sailed on his last melancholy voyage in 1502. He encountered nothing but hardships and disaster in a vain attempt to discover a passage through the Isthmus of Panama, and was forced to return to Jamaica, where he lost the last of his rotten craft. After a year of misery, facing starvation, mutiny and bodily sickness, he got back to Hispaniola and at once set out for Spain, where, abandoned by Ferdinand after Isabella's death, he died in poverty in 1506.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume I

Who were the Moors? *See page 2 and Introduction.*

Of what nationality was Columbus, and where was he born? *Page* 24.

Describe briefly the personal appearance and character of Columbus.

What country did Columbus expect to reach by sailing westward? *Page* 49.

Who prevented Columbus from setting out for France when on the eve of success in Spain? *Page* 78.

What influence did Martin Alonzo Pinzon have in making possible the first voyage of Columbus? *Page* 82.

What was the greatest event in Spanish history during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella? *Page* 88.

What effect did the conquest of Granada have on the discovery of the New World? *Page* 99.

Give a brief description of Queen Isabella of Castile. *Page* 100.

What arguments did Columbus use to convince Isabella and her advisers that his plan was feasible? *Pages* 102-105.

What arguments were brought against the theories of Columbus by the ecclesiastics? *Pages* 67-71.

What conditions did Columbus insist upon, and how did Isabella regard them? *Pages* 105-110.

Who were the principal friends of Columbus at court? *Page* 118.

How did Isabella propose to raise funds for the voyage of Columbus, and where were they actually obtained? *Pages* 121-122

Describe briefly the personal appearance and character of Columbus. *Page* 24.

How many years had Columbus striven to realize his project, and how old was he when success finally came to him? *Page* 128.

What conditions did Isabella finally grant to Columbus? *Page* 135.

To what Asiatic sovereign was Columbus given letters? *Page* 137.

In what way was the Port of Palos made to serve Columbus? *Page* 147.

What were some of the popular ideas regarding the terrors into which Columbus was to venture? *Pages* 148-149.

What were the names of Columbus' ships? Who commanded them? How many men composed his crew? *Page* 152.

After Columbus sailed, what was the first mishap of the passage? *Page* 160.

How and why did Columbus deceive his companions regarding the reckoning? *Page* 166.

What important discovery did Columbus make regarding the compass? *Pages* 170-172.

Mention some of the indications of land that encouraged Columbus' crew to persevere. *Pages* 175, 194, 195.

From which of the ships was land first reported, and who received the honor of having first seen the land? *Page* 198.

Why did Columbus change his course near the end of the voyage, and what was the consequence?
Page 192 *and note.*

Describe the landing of Columbus. *Page* 204.

On what American island did Columbus first set foot?
Page 208 *and note.*

What was Hispaniola? *Page* 219.

What was the name of the first Spanish settlement in America, and what was its fate? *Pages* 234 *and note,* 344.

How did Martin Pinzon conduct himself after Cuba was discovered? *Pages* 217, 238.

And on the return journey? *Pages* 252, 283.

When was Cuba discovered? *Page* 214.

How did Columbus hope to preserve a record of his discovery in case his ships should perish? *Page* 255.

Was the return voyage as pleasant as the outward?
Page 258.

How was Columbus treated by the King of Portugal on his return? *Pages* 263-266.

Describe briefly the triumphal reception of Columbus by the Spanish Court at Barcelona. *Pages* 294-300.

Why and how did Columbus make the egg stand on end?
Page 300.

What kind of men flocked to Cadiz to join the second expedition of Columbus? *Page* 330.

Describe the closing events of the life of Columbus
Page 345 *and note.*

The general career of Columbus could be made the subject of an essay. This list of questions will direct the student to the sources of information. This essay would form an excellent exercise in epitomizing. The first voyage of Columbus could be similarly dealt with. "On what grounds did Columbus base his belief that China could be reached by sailing westward?" would be still another good topic for an essay. The note to page 41, in conjunction with the explanations of his project given by Columbus, as stated on pages 102 to 105, would supply the material.

NOTES FOR THE FIRST COURSE

Volume II

Introductory.

Pages 1 to 54 and 71 to 90 of this volume are concerned with the settlement of Central America, and as there are several threads of events interwoven into the history of this period it will be useful to the student to trace them out, so that they may be clearly held in mind as the story goes forward.

Alonzo de Ojeda (who accompanied Columbus on his second voyage and later made independent expeditions to South America, in one of which he was accompanied by Amerigo Vespucci and discovered and named Venezuela) and Diego de Nicuesa, who had been the agent of the colonies in Spain, received grants from King Ferdinand to colonize and govern Central America.

To Nicuesa was assigned Castilla del Oro, from Cape Gracias á Dios to the Gulf of Darien, while to Ojeda was assigned Nueva Andalucia, from the Gulf of Darien to Cape de la Vela in modern Colombia. They quarreled over the boundaries of their grants, but finally settled on the River Atrato as the dividing line.

Martin Fernandez de Encisco, called "Bachelor" because of his profession, that of a lawyer, assisted Ojeda with his entire fortune. Ojeda sailed in November, 1509, lost part of his force and narrowly escaped death himself at Cartagena Bay, where he landed to capture slaves. In the meantime Nicuesa had sailed (January, 1510). The two expeditions met at Cartagena Bay and made a united attack on the Indians. After separating, Nicuesa was wrecked and lost nearly all his men at Nombre de Dios. Ojeda built a fort at San Sebastian on the Gulf of Darien, but abused the Indians and his garrison was practically by them shut up in the fort. Famine and disease followed, and Ojeda was

wounded by a poisoned arrow. About this time appeared Bernadino de Talavera, a pirate, and Ojeda sailed to San Domingo for assistance in one of his ships. He never returned, however, and died there in great poverty. On his departure he left in command Francisco Pizarro, who then entered on his extraordinary career. Pizarro abandoned San Sebastian and went to Cartagena Bay, where Encisco had arrived with what was intended for the second part of the Ojeda expedition. The Indians destroyed San Sebastian after Pizarro left and Encisco left it to its fate and founded Santa Maria de la Antigua del Darien. Encisco was deposed, and Nicuesa, at Nombre de Dios, in whose grant the colony was situated, was sent for. He was soon expelled, however, and Balboa, the first white man to see the Pacific Ocean, became the leader. The royal authority, however, was vested in Pedrarias, the governor, who executed Balboa. In 1519 Pedrarias abandoned Darien and founded Panama, on the Pacific side of the isthmus. It was from this point that started out the various expeditions which resulted in the conquest and settlement of a large part of South America.

Page 1. San Domingo or Santo Domingo.

This place was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother of Christopher, in 1496. It is the oldest existing and was long the principal Spanish city in America. Columbus was buried there, and tho his bones were supposed to have been carried to Havana in 1796, it seems certain that a mistake was made in opening the tomb and that his remains are still in San Domingo.

Page 2. Diego Columbus (or Colon).

On the death of Christopher Columbus, in 1506, his son Diego inherited his title of Admiral of the Indies, but was not allowed the viceroyalty (which carried the power of making appointments) of the lands discovered by his

father. Diego shortly afterward married a member of the powerful ducal house of Alva, and by the aid of his wife's relatives obtained the post of Governor of the Indies. In 1509 he arrived in great state in Santo Domingo, and in 1511 commissioned Velasquez to conquer Cuba. In 1520 he won his claim to the viceroyalty and was granted a share of the revenues from America. His government was not popular and he was recalled in 1523.

Returning to Spain, he left the government in the hands of his wife, and died in 1526. The title of Admiral of the Indies then devolved upon his son Luis, who received larger revenues than those formerly granted to Diego. In 1536 the title of Duke of Veragua and Marquis of Jamaica, with the ownership of the Island of Jamaica, were conferred upon him as the price of his relinquishment of the old Columbus claim to the viceroyalty of the Indies. Worthless and dissolute in character, he was banished from Spain on account of his scandalous conduct. His daughter married her cousin Diego, but had no children, and the male line of Columbus then became extinct. The family is still in existence, however, and a Duke of Veragua yet traces his descent from the great discoverer.

It perhaps should be noted that Columbus, Colombo and Colon are respectively the Latin, Italian and Spanish forms of the discoverer's name.

Page 4. Romulus and Remus.

The legendary founders of Rome were twin brothers. According to the classical tradition they were the sons of the god Mars and Rhea Silvia, a priestess, daughter of King Numitor. Their grand-uncle, usurping the throne, threw them into the river Tiber, but they were washed ashore and suckled by a she-wolf. When they grew up they restored their grandfather to the throne, and began to build the City of Rome. Romulus killed his brother because he jumped derisively over the wall that Romulus thought was

high enough to protect the city. He was worshiped as a god under the name Quirinus.

Page 26. Martin Fernandez de Encisco.

Encisco afterward wrote the first account in Spanish of the New World. His writings are of importance to historians.

Page 50. San Jago.

This is the Spanish name for Saint James, the patron saint of Spain, whose body, according to legend, was miraculously transported to that country. The eye of superstition has seen him at the head of Spanish armies helping them against the foe.

Jago, Iago and Diego are all forms of this name, and they are so frequent in Spanish-speaking countries that sailors dubbed their inhabitants "dagos," whence that familiar vulgar term.

Page 55. Ponce de Leon.

This famous explorer accompanied Columbus on his second voyage, and conquered and became Governor of Porto Rico in 1510. There he acquired a fortune which he spent in his later explorations.

Page 57. Diego de Valasquez.

Velasquez was a member of the second expedition of Columbus. He conquered Cuba, founded Santiago and Matanzas, and fitted out Grijalva's expedition which resulted in the discovery of Mexico. He also started Cortez on his victorious career, but failing to gain the advantage of the conquest for himself, he is said to have died of chagrin in 1522.

Page 57. Bartolomé de las Casas.

Las Casas was a Spaniard who went to San Domingo in 1502, accompanied Valasquez during the conquest of Cuba, and entered the priesthood there. In 1514 he began to at-

tack Indian slavery, and thereafter devoted his whole life to the championship of the enslaved Indians against Spanish oppression. Again and again he pleaded with the Spanish government in their behalf. Cardinal Ximenes named him "Protector of the Indians," with extensive powers, but he was not able to accomplish much on account of the opposition of those who were profiting by slavery. At length, after repeated visits to Spain, he secured the enaction of laws practically prohibiting Indian slavery. In Mexico, however, they were ignored, and in Peru they caused a rebellion under Pizarro's brother Gonzalo. Las Casas entered the Dominican Order (note Vol. I., p. 59) in 1522, and in 1544 became Bishop of Chiapas, in Mexico, after refusing the bishopric of Cuzco. His constant warfare in behalf of the Indians made him unpopular, and he was forced to resign in 1547. He returned to Spain, where he maintained the cause of the Indians by his vigorous writings. These are of much historical value. He favored substituting negroes for the Indians as slaves, but did not, as has been stated, originate negro slavery in America. (See also note "Pizarro," page 316.)

Page 65. The Jester.

It was the custom in the Middle Ages for sovereigns and great personages to have a jester attached to their households. The business of the jester was to entertain the company with amusing remarks. He was allowed great liberty of speech, even in the presence of royalty.

Page 66. Privilege of Sanctuary.

In those days Catholic churches and church property were inviolate, and any one fleeing to them for protection was safe as long as he stayed within their walls.

Page 74. Gonzalo de Oviedo.

After occupying several important official positions in the New World, Oviedo wrote one of the earliest histories of it. His work is highly regarded.

Page 91. St. Jago.

This city is now known as Santiago, and since there are so many Santiagos (St. Iago or St. James being the patron saint of Spain) each of them has some descriptive title. The Cuban Santiago is known as Santiago de Cuba. It was founded by Velasquez in 1514, and is now the second city of Cuba. Every schoolboy will remember it as the scene of the American naval victory in the late war with Spain.

Page 93. Juan de Grijalva.

Grijalva was the discoverer of Mexico. He was a nephew of Velasquez, the Governor of Cuba, by whom he was sent out to make further explorations in Yucatan, which had just been discovered by Cordova. On his return he was dismissed by Velasquez for not having made settlements.

Page 95. El Dorado.

The name given by the Spaniards to a mythical king who was supposed to rule the City of Manoa in the northern part of South America. Manoa was believed to possess untold wealth, and its king, in order to be personally in keeping with the splendor of his capital, used from time to time to have his body smeared with balsam and then powdered with gold-dust. Hence his title of El Dorado, which means "the gilded." The Amazon and Orinoco regions of South America were made known to the world by a series of ill-fated expeditions which set out in search of the mythical city. The name of the fabled king was soon transferred to his imaginary kingdom, and is now applied in a figurative sense to any region rich in gold, such as California.

Page 124. Aztecs.

The Indians generally comprised under this title included some of the most highly civilized tribes of that race in America. They had very little in common, indeed, with the barbarous tribes with whom the white settlers

of the northeastern part of the United States came in contact. They had attained a considerable degree of civilization, built roads and cities and cultivated the soil. They possessed a good deal of accurate astronomical knowledge, and their invention of a system of writing by means of picture characters indicates intellectual powers which entitle them to no small respect. Compared with our race, however, they never reached a high degree of culture. They had no beasts of burden. Their art was crude. They were unacquainted with the use of iron, and employed an alloy of copper for their weapons and utensils. They were exceedingly cruel, and sacrificed vast numbers of human victims (as many as 20,000 annually, it is said) in their religious rites. They are regarded as having originated from a tribe that was driven to seek refuge on the islands of the lagoon in the region now occupied by the City of Mexico, and, having thus obtained security, so advanced in the arts of civilization that they were able to push their authority over the less developed races that surrounded them. When the Spaniards reached their country they were ruled by a powerful sovereign whose sway extended over a vast territory comprising a large part of what is now Mexico and stretching as far south as Honduras. The word "Indian," as applied to the aborigines of America, indicates the geographical delusion under which the early explorers labored. They thought that they had reached India, and long persevered in their attempt to find a water passage through the country to where they imagined lay the adjoining land of China. (See also note Inca, page 250.)

Page 127. Montezuma.

The unfortunate victim of the Spanish conquest was the second Chief, or "Emperor," as the Spaniards erroneously termed him, of the name. He had been preceded in his office by both his father and uncle. (The sovereignty

among the Aztecs was elective, but confined to the members of the royal family.) By his warlike expeditions he had extended the dominions to which he had succeeded and had acquired great renown as a warrior. The paralysis of his energies in the presence of Cortez seems to have been due to the superstitious terror with which the coming of the white men struck him, confirming, as it seemed, the tradition of Quetzalcoatl (page 131).

Page 130. Hieroglyphics.

This word literally means "sacred carvings," and is generally applied to those inscriptions on Egyptian monuments in which picturelike characters represent words. Knowledge of this system of writing was confined to the priestly caste. These inscriptions remained a mystery until early in the last century, when the discovery of the famous "Rosetta Stone," now in the British Museum, gave the key to their interpretation.

The Spaniards wantonly destroyed nearly all the manuscripts (of which there were many, for the Aztecs cultivated literature) which they found in the country, and there is little likelihood that we shall ever be able to decipher the Aztec hieroglyphics.

Page 135. Vera Cruz.

Before leaving this place Cortez destroyed his ships, so that his soldiers, having no refuge in their rear, would fight more fiercely.

Page 148.

Cortez was first opposed, but afterward joined, by the tribe of the Tlascalans, who had been subjugated by the Aztecs. He also succeeded in securing the aid of the Cholulans, another tribe under the supremacy of the Aztecs.

Page 150. Reveille.

In the army this term refers to the first morning call. The troops rise and sentries cease to challenge after the reveille.

Page 157. Amadis de Gaula, or Amadis of Gaul.

The legendary hero of a famous medieval romance very popular among the Spaniards, who spun out his amazing adventures to great length.

Page 167. Charles V.

This famous monarch has already been referred to in the Introduction to the First Course, but he occupies so conspicuous a place in history as to entitle him to fuller notice. He was the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella through their daughter Joanna, who married Philip of Burgundy, son of the Emperor Maximilian and Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold of Burgundy. Joanna went mad on the death of her husband, and made a melancholy procession through Spain from city to city with his corpse, traveling only by night. Charles fell heir to dominions of vast extent through his father and mother.

At this time the various states which now make up Germany and Austria were loosely united in what was called the "Holy Roman Empire," a strangely misleading title; for, as Voltaire said, it was "neither holy, nor Roman, nor an Empire." By an historic fiction it was supposed to be the successor of the Western Roman Empire. The Emperor Frederick Barbarossa called it "holy." This term was supposed to signify its relation to the Church, with which, however, it was generally at war. The Holy Roman Empire was founded in 800 by Charlemagne (see note, Vol. III., page 19), who ruled over territories roughly corresponding to modern France, Germany, the Netherlands, Austria, and Northern Italy. On his death his dominions were divided

and the history of France and Germany diverged. In the early part of the tenth century the Empire became distinctly German. The emperors claimed the overlordship of Italy, but their pretensions were resisted by the Italians, headed by the Popes. Emperors and Popes both aimed at supremacy in Europe and over each other and their prolonged conflict deeply affected European history.

In 1356 the election of the Emperor was vested in seven German princes, three of them archbishops. The Emperor's authority was often very slight, but the title was eagerly sought, for it added greatly to the influence of a sovereign who was already powerful. The title was not confined to German princes, and foreign candidates frequently came forward. This was the case when Charles V. was elected in 1519, his rivals being Francis I. of France, and Henry VIII. of England. Francis I. was his inveterate enemy, and waged several wars against him. During the first of these, Francis was totally defeated and taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in Italy. The outbreak of the Reformation (see note, Vol. III., page 2) occurred at the time when Charles became emperor. His war with Francis prevented him from taking decisive and immediate steps against it. His brother Ferdinand becoming king of Hungary, Charles' attention was further distracted from internal affairs, for Hungary was threatened by the Turks, and Charles wished to employ the forces of the Empire against them; but the Protestant princes would not aid him unless he granted their religious demands. So they formed against him the League of Schmalkald. Thenceforward, until he abdicated the sovereignty of the Netherlands, in 1555, and that of Spain and his imperial title in 1556, he was occupied by this religious conflict. He was at first successful, but when his ally, the great general, Maurice, Elector of Saxony, turned against him, he was forced to sign the treaty of Passau and later that of Augsburg (1555), which definitely established Protestantism in Germany. After his ab-

dication he retired to a monastery in Spain and is said to have become very devout. He died in 1558.

Charles V. belonged to the great house of Hapsburg, who were the hereditary archdukes of Austria. After 1483 the Empire became practically hereditary in this family, which still rules in Austria. The last Holy Roman Emperor was Francis II., who took the title of Emperor of Austria in 1806, after Napoleon had wrecked the political systems of most of the countries of Europe.

Page 171. La Villa Rica de Vera Cruz.

"The Rich City of the True Cross" was the full name of Vera Cruz.

Page 174. Alvarado.

Next to Cortez, the principal part in the conquest of Mexico was borne by Pedro de Alvarado. Unlike most Spaniards, he was fair in complexion with blond beard and blue eyes, and the natives accordingly looked upon him with great awe, beholding in him especially one of the fair complexioned royal race prophesied by Quetzlcoatl. During the absence of Cortez on the expedition against Narvaez, he massacred a large number of Aztec chiefs at a religious festival, having discovered that they intended to attack the Spanish garrison. Cortez was forced to abandon the city of Mexico shortly after his return from Cempoalla, and Alvarado commanded the rear-guard during the famous retreat. A spot called Alvarado's Leap (*Salto de Alvarado*) is still pointed out as the place where, hard pressed by the Indians on the *noche triste*, he saved his life by a great vault across a gap in the causeway, using a long spear as a pole. After the final conquest of Mexico, he conquered and was made governor of Guatemala. Later he turned his attention to South America and, claiming that Pizarro and Almagro had received no royal authority in Quito (see notes, pages 268, 316) led an expedition into that region by a terrible march

from the coast, during which many of his men succumbed. He was still sufficiently strong, however, when met by Pizarro's troops under Almagro, to secure a large sum of money as the price of his withdrawal. Honduras, which he aided in conquering, was later added to his government of Guatemala. His death in 1541 was caused by the fall of his horse.

Page 229. Montezuma.

The death of this unfortunate sovereign occurred in 1520. Cortez held him as a hostage for the safety of himself and soldiers. When the Aztecs rose and attacked the Spanish quarters, Cortez made him show himself to his people and endeavor to quiet them. Instead, they stoned Montezuma, and he died a few days later of grief and mortification, it is said, rather than of the wounds he received. He is now regarded by the Indians of Mexico as their chief deity, tho he is not worshiped. It is interesting to note that descendants of Montezuma, through his daughters, still live in Mexico.

Page 229. Cortez.

The story left Cortez after his defeat of Narvaez at the battle of Cempoalla. While Cortez was occupied with Narvaez, Alvarado, his deputy in command in Mexico, massacred a large number of Aztecs, fearing an attack. When Cortez returned he found the situation very perilous, particularly after the death of Montezuma, and he decided to retreat. The night of his departure is known by the Spaniards as the *Noche triste* ("dreadful night"). They were attacked by the natives, and many of them captured and hurried off to Mexico City to be sacrificed. At Otumba he turned and won a desperate battle against an immense force of the enemy. He passed the summer at Tlascala, and having received reinforcements, returned to the attack. Traversing the country and fighting numerous battles, he arrived before Mexico City in April, 1521, and assaulted

it with land forces and a flotilla of small boats. The city resisted desperately for three months, but surrendered after the capture of the Aztec chief, Guatemozin. Cortez then founded the modern City of Mexico, settling it with Spanish colonists, and, with characteristic energy, sent out many exploring expeditions. Following the usual Spanish procedure, enemies jealous of his success began to undermine him in Spain. Estrada was sent out to take his place as governor in 1528, and Cortez returned to Spain. Here he was received with great honors, made a marquis, and, his first wife having died, married a lady of very high rank, the niece of the Duke of Bejar. He returned to Mexico in 1530 with supreme military command, but, not having civil authority, he was able to accomplish little, tho he continued his explorations, and in 1536 discovered Lower California. In 1540 he left America for the last time, angered because Coronado was appointed to command the expedition to search for the mythical "Seven Cities of Cibola." He was a member of Charles V.'s unsuccessful expedition to Algiers, after which he passed his days in obscurity, dying near Seville in 1547. Cortez, like many other great warriors, was not equally successful as an administrator. Cortez left several sons, the mother of one of whom was Doña Marina. His title of Marquis del Vale and possessions passed to his legitimate heir. The present Italian ducal family of Terranovo and Monteleone eventually succeeded to the direct line of Cortez. The Spanish form *Cortés* is now generally preferred to that of *Cortez*.

Page 229. Pizarro.

For his previous history, see pages 4, 22, 211.

Page 233. Pizarro.

Three of Pizarro's brothers achieved renown in the New World. They were Juan, who was killed at Cuzco, a brilliant soldier; Hernando, imprisoned for many years in

Spain by the enemies of Francisco Pizarro, and Gonzalo, specially prominent in the affairs of Peru after Francisco's death.

Page 243. "Cœur de Lion."

This title, which means Lionhearted, was applied to Richard I., King of England, renowned for his bravery and feats of strength during the Crusades, as were called the great expeditions which set out from Europe during the Middle Ages to conquer the holy sepulchre from the Saracens.

Page 250. The Incas.

The word Inca is applied both to the Indians of Peru and to their sovereigns. The latter possessed absolute power, and were religious as well as civil and military chiefs. The priesthood was confined to the royal family, which was very large on account of the numerous wives allowed its members. The sovereigns married among their sisters, as did the Ptolemies, the Greek rulers of ancient Egypt; and only the sons of such wives were deemed eligible to succession to the throne. Atahualpa, the reigning Inca at the time of Pizarro's conquest, was regarded as illegitimate because his mother was not a royal princess. The Peruvians lived in villages or communes, but in important matters of state, and often in others, were autocratically treated by their rulers. Their civilization was in many ways the most advanced attained by any Indian race. In architecture, road-building, irrigation, and weaving they were highly skilled, but since they never devised a written language they were inferior intellectually to the Aztecs (see note to page 124), whom they resembled in many ways. They were more humane than the latter, and did not offer human sacrifices in which the Aztecs reveled.

It must be remembered that the accounts of the conquests of both Peru and Mexico, as given in the volume, are

largely based upon the narrative of Prescott, who, in turn, took the early Spanish writers for his authorities. The latter drew heavily on their imaginations in relating the wonders they had seen or heard of in the New World, and Prescott, tho justly eminent as an historian, was himself fond of strong coloring. Recent archeological investigation has shown that many of his details regarding Indian civilization, history, and achievements are overwrought. The student must therefore be warned not to allow too glowing a picture of Mexican and Incan civilization to become fixed in his mind, for the truth is now clearly established that the American Indians never reached the degree of development which we know was attained by the Babylonians and Egyptians long before 3000 B.C., and the Mexicans and Peruvians were not to be compared with their Spanish conquerors.

Page 251. Cuzco.

The capital of the Incas, founded in the eleventh century. A modern city perpetuates its site. It is 11,380 feet above the sea-level.

Page 264. Hernando de Soto.

The discoverer of the Mississippi River was a native of the same province of Spain as Cortez and Pizarro—Estremadura.

Page 266. Caxamalca.

This name is also spelled Caxamara and Cajamarca. It was one of the principal cities of the Incas. It has a population to-day of about 12,000. The map of Peru should be consulted to gain a clear idea of Pizarro's march.

Page 268. Diego de Almagro.

Almagro was a foundling, and the name given him was that of the city in which he was picked up. He was one of Pizarro's partners in the exploration of Peru, on the

strength of which Pizarro went to Spain to seek the aid of the emperor Charles V. for his subsequent conquest. After the conquest Almagro received a grant of Chile. Pizarro and Almagro quarreled over the ownership of the city of Cuzco, and Almagro met defeat and death at the hands of his old friend.

Page 271. Pizarro.

In connection with this speech of Pizarro's, Bible students will recall that Gideon got rid of his army of malcontents and fainthearts in a similar way at Mount Gilead. (See Judges vii.)

Page 287. Peruvian Religion.

The reference of the Inca to his God, as he pointed to the sun, will be clear when it is remembered that the Peruvian Indians, like the Aztecs, were sun-worshippers.

Page 293. Atahualpa's Ransom.

Incredible as it may seem, Pizarro actually received, in accordance with this agreement, gold to the value of $17,500,000.

Page 293. Peruvian Government.

The remark of the Inca, to the effect that none of his subjects would dare raise a finger without his orders, may be taken as describing in a few words the whole system of government among these Indians. All power, even to regulating many of the affairs of every-day life, was in the hands of the Inca. The Aztecs had a similar system, and one cause of the comparative ease of the conquest of the people by the Spaniards, with a mere handful of men, was the general national paralysis which ensued on the death or capture of the chief.

Page 293. Huascar.

Huascar and Atahualpa were both sons of the Inca Huayna Capac, who, on his death, divided his territories between them. Huascar received Peru and Atahualpa Quito. Atahualpa, according to the laws of the Incas, was illegitimate (see note on Incas, page 250), and Huascar demanded that his brother do homage to him for the kingdom of Quito. By way of response, Atahualpa invaded Huascar's dominions, took him prisoner, and mercilessly slaughtered many members of his family. This civil war, which occurred about the time Pizarro was landing on the coast, greatly undermined the resisting powers of the Peruvians.

Page 309. Manco Capac.

This was also the name of the first of the Incas and the traditional founder of their power.

Page 316. Pizarro.

The events narrated in this chapter took place in 1533. Pizarro was killed in 1541. A brief sketch of intervening events is as follows: Cuzco being in the interior, Pizarro founded Lima, near the seacoast, as his capital and the center of operations against the natives, tho Cuzco long remained the principal city of Peru. He also established a number of towns in various parts of the country as centers of Spanish colonization. In the meantime his brother Hernando had gone to Spain, bearing the royal fifth of the plunder taken from the Incas, and in 1535 returned with the title of Marquis for Pizarro, a grant of Chile for Almagro, and numerous honors and concessions for the other members of the conquering expedition. An insurrection under Manco Capac, which threatened for a time to expel the Spaniards from Peru, was finally suppressed with the aid of all the reinforcements that could be hurried from Panama and Mexico. Almagro invaded Chile, and on his return claimed the rich city of Cuzco

as within his grant. War ensued, Almagro was defeated at Las Salinas, and later executed by order of Pizarro. He left a party of supporters for Pizarro to deal with, however, and in 1541 a band of them, under Juan de la Rada, who had united with Almagro's son to avenge his father's death, surprised Pizarro while at dinner, and murdered him. When mortally wounded, Pizarro made a cross with his own blood on the floor and died kissing it. His ending is a sad one, but more enviable perhaps than that of Columbus and Cortes, who died in obscurity after their early blaze of glory.

Gonzalo Pizarro maintained his brother's interests after the latter's death. In the meantime, Las Casas, the champion of the Indians, had wrought so powerfully in Spain in their behalf that a set of laws, called the "New Laws for the Indies," was drawn up, by which the Indians of Mexico and Peru were declared free, and were to receive payment for their labor. Governor Vela was sent out to Peru to enforce the laws, but both he and they were unpopular. Gonzalo Pizarro was declared viceroy, and drove out Vela. Gonzalo ruled judiciously, but was regarded as a rebel against the Spanish King, and Pedro de la Gasca was sent against him. Gasca was first defeated, but Gonzalo was at length overthrown and executed. All the modern Spanish-speaking South American republics were originally included in the territory of Peru.

Page 334. Narvaez.

For the previous history of Narvaez, see pages 168, 211. Narvaez perished in 1528 while trying to cross the Mississippi. Only one boat, in which was Cabeza da Vaca, survived a storm which arose. Da Vaca and three companions, one of whom was a negro, after eight years of wandering among the Indians of what are now Texas and Arkansas, at last reached Mexico. In the meantime the cupidity of the Spaniards had ben inflamed by reports of the "Seven Cities

of Cibola,'' which were said to lie to the north of Mexico and to be fabulously rich. Da Vaca said he had not seen the cities himself, but felt sure from what he had heard from the Indians that they existed. The negro who had accompanied Da Vaca volunteered to guide Fray Marcos, a monk, to the region of the Seven Cities. When Marcos got back he said he had seen Cibola from the top of a hill. This led Francisco Coronado to make his famous expedition far into the interior of what is now the United States. The ''Seven Cities of Cibola'' turned out to be mud-built Indian villages.

Page 334. Hernando de Soto.

This famous discoverer and soldier came to America with Pedrarias in 1514. His career under Pizarro has been already fully described. He acquired a great fortune in Peru, gained the favor of the emperor Charles V. by advancing him a part of it, and was appointed by him Governor of Cuba and Florida. He married a daughter of Pedrarias.

Page 341. Indians.

It must be remembered that the Indians of this region are no longer the yielding Aztecs, but the fiercer, more cunning, and barbarous tribes of the north.

Page 360. Horses.

It was from horses escaping from the Spanish expeditions that the Indians of the plains obtained their mounts. They had previously wandered about on foot, but soon became expert horsemen.

Page 363. Mississippi.

Altho the discovery of the Mississippi is credited to De Soto in 1541, it must be remembered that Alonzo de Pineda, exploring the coast from Florida to Vera Cruz in 1519, entered its mouth, while Narvaez, as already noted, has the melancholy honor of having been swept out to sea by its current in 1528.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume II

Give some details regarding the early lives of Pizarro, Balboa, and Cortez. *Pages* 3-5, 9.

What relation was Pizarro to Cortez? *Page* 5.

Give a brief account of the descendants of Columbus. *Page* 2 *and note.*

What were the principal objects of the Spaniards in their New World expeditions? *Page* 243.

Give a brief sketch of the circumstances attending the colonization of Darien. *Chapters* 1 *and* 2 *and Introductory Note.*

How did Pizarro reduce his forces before taking ship to escape from San Sebastian? *Page* 23.

Who founded Darien? *Page* 25.

Who was Fulvia, and how did she effect the career of Balboa? *Pages* 33, 34.

What white man first saw the Pacific Ocean? Page 51.

Who discovered Florida, and what led him into that country? *Page* 55.

After whom is America named, and how did she get the name? *Page* 56 *and note, Vol. I., page* 276.

Who conquered Cuba? *Page* 57.

Who was Las Casas, and to what noble cause did he devote his life? *Page* 57 *and note.*

When were negroes first brought to America as slaves? *Page* 63.

Describe the personal appearance of Cortez at the time he set out to conquer Mexico. *Page* 104.

Who was Doña Marina? *Page* 126.

In what ways did she assist Cortez? *Page* 149.

When and by whom was Vera Cruz founded? *Page* 132.

What was the tradition of Quetzalcoatl, and what influence did it have on the conquest of Mexico? *Pages* 131, 154.

Who was Montezuma?
Page 127, *and notes to pages* 127, 229.

Describe his personal appearance. *Page* 162.

Give a brief account of the expedition against Cortez under Narvaez. *Pages* 165-182.

What was the subsequent fate of Narvaez? *Page* 210.

Mention a striking incident of Pizarro's dauntlessness. *Page* 211.

What were the respective missions of Pizarro and Cortez to Spain in the summer of 1528?
Page 226 *and note to page* 229.

What was the only beast of burden employed by the American Indians? *Page* 231.

Who commissioned Pizarro to conquer Peru, and what rank was conferred upon him? *Pages* 230, 231.

Who was Atahualpa? State what circumstances in the internal affairs of Peru facilitated its conquest by Pizarro. *Page* 252.

With what forces did Pizarro embark on his great enterprise? *Page* 256.

What evidences of Peruvian civilization did the Spaniards notice while on the march? *Page* 269.

Where was the City of Caxamarca, and when did Pizarro enter it? *Pages* 278, 279.

Describe the seizure of the Inca Atahualpa.
Pages 283-290.

How much gold did Atahualpa agree to pay for his ransom? *Page* 292.

Why did Pizarro cause the execution of Atahualpa?
Pages 291, 297.

Give a brief account of the City of Cuzco. *Pages* 310, 311.

What was the most strange and interesting feature of the ceremonies attending the crowning of an Inca?
Page 315.

When and why did De Soto leave Pizarro? *Page* 312.

Describe the equipment of De Soto's soldiers. *Page* 342.

What effect did the cruel treatment of the Indians by Narvaez have on the expedition of De Soto? *Page* 346.

Where did De Soto fight his severest battle against the Indians? *Page* 356.

What was the object of De Soto's quest? *Page* 363.

Did De Soto realize that his discovery of the Mississippi would bring him undying fame? *Page* 365.

What was the extreme northern point to which De Soto penetrated? *Page* 367.

Describe the death and burial of De Soto. *Page* 370.

The careers of Pizarro, Cortez, Balboa, and De Soto form excellent subjects for essays. Advanced pupils may be asked to write an essay on the general subject of the conquests of Peru and Mexico, pointing out the main features of resemblance between the two expeditions. The questions listed above give sufficient clues to the requisite material.

SECOND COURSE

Comprising Volumes III and IV

OUTLINE OF THE SECOND COURSE

Comprising Volumes III and IV

From the Opening of the Reformation in Europe to the Year 1620.

First Reading. Vol. III, pages 1-16.

Review of maritime discovery—The Reformation in Germany, England, France, and the Netherlands.

Second Reading. Vol. III, pages 17-57.

Coligni's efforts to colonize America with Huguenots—Ribault's expedition—Establishment of Fort Charles in Carolina.

Third Reading. Vol. III, pages 58-91.

Ribault's first colony—Sailing of Laudonnière—Laudonnière and the Indians—Construction of Fort Carolinia—Piratical expedition of French desperadoes.

Fourth Reading. Vol. III, pages 92-127.

Disease, famine and dissensions in the Colony—Indian attacks—Arrival of Sir John Hawkins.

Fifth Reading. Vol. III, pages 128-157.

Return of Ribault—Arrival of Melendez—Destruction of Ribault's fleet.

Sixth Reading. Vol. III, pages 158-181.

Foundation of St. Augustine—Capture of Fort Carolinia and massacre of the French.

Seventh Reading. Vol. III, pages 182-225.

Escape of Laudonnière—Hanging of the heretics—Murder of Ribault.

Eighth Reading. Vol. III, pages 226-268.

De Gourges' preparations for Vengeance—The attack on Fort San Mattheo.

Ninth Reading. Vol. III, pages 269-309.

Capture of San Mattheo by De Gourges and his retributory massacre of the garrison—Early days of St. Augustine.

Tenth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 1-42.

Sacking of St. Augustine by Sir Francis Drake—Abandonment of Sir Walter Raleigh's Colony at Roanoke—Contemporary events in England—English adventurers in the New World—The Lost Colony.

Eleventh Reading. Vol. IV, pages 43-86.

Social conditions in England—Gosnold and Pring—The London and Plymouth Companies—Sir Ferdinando Georges—Foundation of Jamestown.

Twelfth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 87-126.

John Smith's explorations—Smith and Pocahontas.

Thirteenth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 127-162.

Smith's activity in the Colony's interests—Troubles with the Indians over provisions.

Fourteenth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 163-199.

Smith made president—Powhatan crowned emperor by Newport—Treason in the colony—Smith's defeat of Opechancanough.

Fifteenth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 200-235.

Further adventures of John Smith—Voyages of Henry Hudson—Foundation of New Amsterdam—Smith's departure from Virginia.

Sixteenth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 236-287.

Demoralization of the Colony—Arrival of Lord De la Warr—Plantation of new settlements—Marriage of Pocahontas to John Rolfe.

Eighteenth Reading. Vol. IV. Note to page 288.

Sketch of the History of France.

Nineteenth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 287-304.

Pocahontas in England—Early French settlements—Argall's expedition against Port Royal.

Twentieth Reading. Vol. IV, pages 305-355.

First Representative Assembly in America—Introduction of slaves into Virginia—War with the Indians—Virginia becomes a Royal Colony.

NOTES FOR THE SECOND COURSE

Volume III

Introductory.

By way of introduction to that part of the Second Course embraced by Volume III, it will be well to review the course of the discoveries made in the New World up to 1560, the date at which this volume opens. In order to impress the facts thoroughly upon his mind the student will find it helpful to take a map of America and mark off upon it each successive discovery, with the date and name of the explorer.

First, then, we must imagine the map of America as a blank. The first entry upon it, of course, will be Columbus, 1492, opposite San Salvador. Cuba and Hayti will be similarly marked. Jamaica will also bear the name of Columbus and the date 1494.

For the next entry we must skip far to the north—to Newfoundland and Cape Breton, where the name of John Cabot and the date 1497 will record the discovery of the American mainland, if we leave out of account the almost certain visits of the Northmen and the not improbable voyages credited to the Welsh prince Madoc in 1170 and the Venetian brothers Zeno in 1380. In the following year Cabot made another voyage in which he seems to have skirted the coast of Labrador to Florida. On this voyage England based her claim to a part of the New World.

The discovery of Central America is attributed to Vicente Yañez Pinzon, in 1497. It is likely that Americus Vespucius, from whom America is named, was a companion of Pinzon on this voyage. On his fourth voyage, Columbus discovered Honduras and coasted as far south as the isthmus of Panama, but that was not until 1502. It will be well, however, to make an entry of this voyage.

A line from the mouths of the Orinoco to Margarita Island, with the date 1498 and the name of Columbus, will indicate the third voyage of the great navigator, and mark the next step in New World discovery. A continuation of this line to the Gulf of Maracaibo is to be credited to Ojeda, 1499. The name of the great navigator Pinzon will again appear, with the date 1500, along a line from Cape St. Augustine to Trinidad. This line records the discovery of Brazil.

In the same year (1500) Pedro Cabral touched the Brazilian coast, thus establishing the claim of Portugal to that country. There is something very romantic about this voyage, for Cabral was trying to follow the route of Vasco da Gama around the south coast of Africa and, keeping too far out to sea, was blown across to South America. Accordingly, had Columbus not already visited America, chance would have thrown the prize into the hands of Cabral.

The record of a voyage of Vespucius in 1501 will carry

the line of South American discoveries almost down to the mouth of the river La Plata. This river formerly bore the name of Solis, from Juan de Solis, who passed it in 1508, in company with Pinzon, and explored it in 1515. In 1506 Pinzon and Solis explored the Gulf of Honduras. Florida must be marked Ponce de Leon, 1512.

On the North Atlantic coast we have already recorded the name of John Cabot. The next name to be entered is that of Gaspar de Cortereal, along a line from Labador to the Bay of Fundy, 1500-01.

A long line from Cape Fear in North Carolina to Cape Race in Newfoundland will record the famous exploring voyage of Giovanni da Verrazano in 1524. His description of the coast led Europeans to believe for many years that the lands discovered along the Atlantic formed only a narrow strip between it and the Pacific, and persistent attempts were made to find a passageway through to China. A line down the St. Lawrence to Montreal, dated 1534-1535, will indicate the important voyage of Jacques Cartier.

The name of Cortes must be written along the Mexican coast from Lower California to Guatemala, under the dates 1521-39. The conquests of Pizarro in Peru (1531-1541) and of his lieutenant Valdivia in Chile carry the line of South American coast exploration from the Isthmus to the city of Valdivia, against which may be placed the date 1540.

The Strait of Magellan was discovered in 1520 by the great sailor whose name it bears. The gap between the strait and Valdivia was not closed until 1578, when Sir Francis Drake cruised all along the coast as far north as California, to which he gave the name New Albion and of which he took possession in the name of the English queen, on his famous freebooting voyage around the world. It was not until the voyage of the Danish navigator Bering, in 1728, that it was definitely shown that America is not

a part of the mainland of Asia. The date 1585, opposite Davis Strait, will record the discovery of that important Arctic waterway by John Davis.

The foregoing sketch indicates the principal voyages of discovery by which the general contour of the American continent was roughly outlined. The accurate charting of the coast line, now so familiar to us, was, of course, the work of a large number of men less conspicious in or unknown to history. Nor is it certain that history has always been able to do strict justice in according her honors in connection with American discoveries, and it is probable in some cases that the first recorded voyage was not the first actual voyage. Magellan's discovery of the strait that bears his name is a case in point; for the course he steered was so direct as to indicate that he had already heard of the location of the waterway he is credited with discovering.

Page 1. Havana.

Now the capital and most important city of Cuba. Havana Bay was discovered by Sebastian de Ocampo, who first circumnavigated the island in 1508. The city was founded by Velasquez in 1515 on the south side of the island, but was transferred to its present site four years later. Within a quarter of a century it became Spain's chief naval station in the New World and was therefore exposed to constant attack, both by pirates greedy for Spanish treasure, and by the foreign foes of Spain.

Page 2. Fernando de Magellan.

Magellan is an anglicization of Magellanes, the Spanish form of Megalhães, the correct but unpronounceable name of the great Portuguese navigator. He rendered important services in India and Africa to his own sovereign, but in 1517, feeling himself aggrieved, he abandoned Portugal

and entered the employ of the King of Spain, Charles V., who placed a squadron of five ships at his disposal. With these he sailed to South America in 1519. After passing the strait now called after him, he made his way across the Pacific, which he so named on account of the pleasant weather he met with. He discovered the Philippines. There, in 1521, during an attack upon the natives of the island of Mactan, he was killed. One of his lieutenants, Sebastian del Cano, continued the voyage and completed the first circumnavigation of the globe in 1522, when his ship, the *Victoria*, dropped anchor in Seville Roads, whence Magellan had set forth. (Seville is 60 miles from the coast, but the tide runs still further up the river Guadalquivir, upon which it is situated.)

Page 2. The Cabots.

By "the Cabots" is meant John Cabot and his second son, Sebastian. John Cabot was an Italian, a native of Genoa, who became a resident of Bristol, England, whence he sent out some vessels far into the Atlantic a year before the voyage of Columbus to seek an island which was reported to lie somewhere southwest of Ireland. In England he changed his name from the original Giovanni Gaboto to John Cabot. When the news of Columbus' discovery reached England, Henry VII. gave him permission to make a voyage in search of a northwest passage to India. In 1497 he arrived off Nova Scotia, thus being the discoverer of the American mainland. He was received on his return to England with great honor, was granted a pension, and called "Grand Admiral of England." The next year he made the voyage which gave England her claim to the North Atlantic coast of America. It is thought that he died on this voyage.

Sebastian Cabot, who probably accompanied his father on the two voyages referred to above, also achieved great renown as a navigator in both the English and Spanish

services. He is said to have penetrated far into Hudson Strait in 1517. From 1526 to 1530 he discovered and explored the Parana, Uruguay and Paraguay rivers. He later returned to England and was very active in promoting commercial and exploring ventures. His character has been variously estimated, some lauding him; others representing him as a very base person indeed. He can not be denied intrepidity, however, and a high place among great explorers.

Page 2. Northwest Passage.

Although the quest of a navigable waterway around the north of the American continent has long been followed with enthusiastic determination by Arctic explorers, it hardly enters into American history, and we need discuss it here no further that to say that it has been proved that such a passage actually exists and at the time of this writing (1905) the Norwegian explorer Amundsen has just brought the first ship through it. The honor of its discovery does not belong to him, however, for a succession of English explorers, among whom was Sir John Franklin, who perished tragically with his entire party in 1847, had already traced its course. The passage, so far as it is known, is very shallow, and doubtless is chimerical from the commercial point of view.

Page 2. Verazzani.

Giovanni da Verazzani, or Verrazano (the name is variously spelled), was an Italian navigator in French service. Much uncertainty exists regarding his history. He seems to have carried on a piratical career under the name of Juan Florin, and this has given rise to confusion. The authenticity of his letter to Francis I., king of France, which forms the principal evidence of his famous voyage, has been disputed.

Page 2. Cartier.

Jacques Cartier, one of the most celebrated of the French navigators, made three voyages to what is now Canada, exploring the Gulf of and River St. Lawrence. He tried to plant a settlement in Canada in 1542, but failed.

Page 2. The Reformation.

This great religious movement exercised so profound an influence upon the destiny of the United States that it calls for more than a passing notice. It helped to mold American destiny in two ways: first, by destroying the hitherto almost universal authority of the pope, who had decreed possession of the newly discovered portions of the globe, and those remaining to be discovered, to the Spaniards and Portuguese; and second, by developing the English Puritans, who placed an indelible stamp upon our civilization and institutions.

Pope Alexander VI., who issued the famous bull, or decree, of partition, was himself a Spaniard. That his bull was no mere matter of form is illustrated by the fact that Ojeda was heavily fined for trespassing on territory granted to Portugal by this decree. Had England remained a Catholic nation it is not likely that even so bold a sovereign as Queen Elizabeth would have dared to transgress the papal edict. In fact, Elizabeth herself would not have reigned, for it was upon the question of Henry VIII.'s divorce from Catharine of Aragon (daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella) that the Reformation in England hinged. The pope refused to grant the divorce. Henry defied the pope, declared himself head of the English Church and married Anne Boleyn, who became the mother of Elizabeth.

The English people were for the most part favorably disposed toward the new religious doctrines then spreading so rapidly on the continent. The famous John Wyclif, an Englishman, had preached the doctrines of the Reformation over a century before it actually took place. Accordingly,

the English people, after experiencing a mild form of the convulsion with which the Reformation shook the continental nations allowed their king to change the state religion for them in a way that suited his own personal and political schemes. The work of turning England into a Protestant nation went forward rapidly under Edward VI., Henry VIII.'s son, but met a set-back under the successor of Edward VI., his fanatical Catholic half-sister, Mary, the daughter of Catharine of Aragon. Mary married Philip II. of Spain, a worthy consort. Deeply devoted to her Church, she saw in Protestantism a frightful curse to her country and lighted the fires of persecution to eradicate it. Under Elizabeth this policy was reversed, the Catholics were persecuted in turn, tho less violently, and England became definitely Protestant.

All these changes were largely political; but a body of men more deeply imbued with the religious spirit of the Reformation, considered the substitution of the English sovereign for the Roman pope as head of the church only a superficial change and began to demand more radical measures. From this party were developed the Puritans. Many of the Puritan extremists, asserting that each congregation should be independent in its church-government, were driven to America by the persecution of those who believed a uniform ecclesiastical system, administered by bishops, subordinate to the royal authority, essential to a national unity and a strong political system. The Puritan party in England rapidly acquired a dominating influence in political affairs. Oliver Cromwell, England's greatest ruler, who, after the execution of Charles I., took the reins of government with the title of "Lord Protector," belonged to that section of the Puritans called "Independents," because of their demand for independence and freedom in religious affairs.

Germany was the principal theater of the Reformation, and terribly did it suffer while the great political questions

to which the religious movement gave rise were fought out in the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648). Martin Luther began the prolonged contest in 1517 by his denunciation of the abuses in the Roman Catholic Church, leveling his attacks chiefly against the wholesale traffic in indulgences, (remission of the penalties of sin for money payment). In Germany as in England, political conditions were favorable to a movement that involved the renunciation of papal authority, the Germans having long fought the pretensions of both the popes and their own elective emperors to interfere in the affairs of the various states that composed the Empire; and a number of the German princes embraced Luther's doctrines and established the reformed religion in their dominions. They formed a league, which was attacked by the Emperor Charles V., (see Note, Vol. II, page 167), who favored Catholicism for both religious and political reasons. He was forced, at last, to make a truce with the Protestant princes, and to grant a large degree of religious independence in Germany. Sick of the difficulties of ruling his vast and distracted empire, he abdicated his several thrones and, in 1556, betook himself to a monastery in Spain. But the struggle went on, and in 1618 strife between the Catholics and Protestants of Bohemia, where the doctrines of Wyclif had been spread by the great reformer John Huss, in the early part of the fifteenth century, brought on the Thirty Years' War, in the course of which the German Protestants received the aid of the great Swedish soldier-king, Gustavus Adolphus, and other foreign leaders, and in which they were finally successful in 1648. Cardinal Richelieu also rendered them potent aid for political reasons. (See Note, France, Vol. IV, page 288).

In France the Reformation brought on no fewer than nine successive civil wars; but its doctrines were embraced by only a portion of the middle classes and nobles, and were never taken deeply into the hearts of the common

people. John Calvin, one of the greatest of the Protestant religious leaders, was a Frenchman. The Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called, were at first subjected to severe persecution; but, as is usual in such cases, they grew more numerous. Many powerful personages joined them, among them the illustrious Jeanne d'Albret, queen of Navarre, Admiral Coligny, and the Prince of Condé. Under the command of Condé the Huguenots took up arms in 1562. Catharine de Medici, the queen-regent, hated the Protestants, and naturally enough, for the great family of Medici to which she belonged numbered at one time and another two popes and many cardinals. Nevertheless, she intrigued with them for political purposes. Finally, however, in 1572, she lured their leaders into the terrible death-trap known as the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

This left Henry of Navarre, son of Jeanne d'Albret, leader of the Protestants, and he pursued the struggle with all the commanding ability that marked his career, until, in 1589, he became king of France as Henry IV. Then, seeing that France was Catholic and not Protestant as a nation, he turned Catholic; but published in 1598 the famous Edict of Nantes, granting general religious toleration. Under his son, Louis XIII., however, the struggle broke out again, now assuming a pronounced political complexion; for freedom in religion begets a desire for freedom in government, and the Huguenots favored political institutions antagonistic to the absolutism of the French monarchy. They were finally suppressed as a political force by the illustrious Cardinal Richelieu, tho he was too Great,'' revoked the Edict of Nantes in 1685, and treated the Huguenots so harshly that they were driven in thousands to other countries. The American Colonies were fortunate enough to receive a large number of these worthy far-sighted a statesman to persecute them on purely religious grounds. After his death Louis XIV., miscalled ''the immigrants.

In the Netherlands the Reformation gave rise to a struggle for liberty from the Spanish rulers of that country, a struggle that has no parallel in history. Compared with the oppression under which the Dutch suffered, the grievances cited in our Declaration of Independence (if we may be permitted a Macaulay-like turn of phrase) were liberal privileges; and in comparison with their conflict with the bloodthirsty duke of Alva the severest campaigns of the American struggle with England were pleasure excursions. We shall refer to this period later when we deal more fully with the history of Holland.

Page 10. Philip Melanchthon.

Melanchthon is a Greek translation of the German Schwarzerd, which means black earth, the name of a great German religious reformer, co-worker with Martin Luther. He was famous as a teacher, scholar, and theologian. Noble as his moderation in religious questions now seems, it was hardly fitted for the fierce days of strife in which he lived.

Page 10. The Inquisition.

Few words in our language bring to the mind a picture of such horrors as this, but impartiality must relieve the Roman Catholic Church of some of the odium which generally attaches to it on account of the Inquisition. It is true that the Catholic church founded the "Holy Office" of the Inquisition, and still maintains a feeble form of it, for the discovery and extirpation of heresy; and, further, that it was a Catholic order, the Dominicans, (Note, Vol. I, page 59), to which its direction was entrusted, and which gained a somber fame thereby. But it is equally true that it was not until the Spanish state desired to make use of it for its own purposes that the greatest atrocities with which its name is associated were committed; and in connection with this subject it must be remembered that religious and political questions were sadly mixed until com-

paratively recent times. Indeed, the Spanish sovereigns made the Inquisition odious to such an extent that Pope Sixtus IV. protested, and Pope Paul III. tried to prevent its introduction into Naples, then (1546) part of the Spanish dominions.

Ferdinand and Isabella are responsible for the revival of the Inquisition in Spain. They used it first against the Jews, numbers of whom made false professions of Christianity and were deemed dangerous to the state. Tomas de Torquemada, the first Spanish Inquisitor-General, sank his name in infamy by the rigor with which he exercised his office. Nevertheless, the atrocities of the Inquisition, while undeniably great, have been exaggerated, and many of its sentences, tho abhorrent to us in our more enlightened age, were sanctioned by the spirit of the times, and were not any more inhuman than those passed in the regular courts of justice in that day.

In passing judgment, not only upon the Inquisition, but also upon the acts in general of preceding generations, we should never forget that our own superior humanity and knowledge were gained through their efforts, successes and failures, and that we shall stand before our successors in history in much the same disagreeable light as our predecessors appear to us. If we now enjoy a good degree of religious and political liberty, let us not suppose that had we lived in the old days of oppression we should have hurled off tyranny and announced our broad principles of liberty to the world. Had we lived then, most of us would have been quite as narrow as the majority of the people of the age; so it is not fair to judge them from the viewpoint of superiority which they helped to win for us.

Page 17. Ulrich Zuingliss.

The form of the name now generally preferred is Zwingli. He was the originator and forefront of the Reformation in Switzerland. He framed opinions similar to those

of Luther, before the latter publicly defied the papal power, and, like Luther, he began his movement by an attack upon indulgences. In Switzerland the Reformation took the form of civil strife between the Protestant cantons and those which remained Catholic. Zwingli began his career as a soldier-priest, and closed it on the field of battle, fighting against the Catholic forces.

Page 17. Martin Luther.

Martin Luther was the originator and foremost religious leader of the Reformation. He was born in 1483, in a very humble station of life. His parents destined him for the law, but his religious nature took him to the monastery. His learning and eloquence caused him to be appointed professor at the new university of Wittenberg, where he achieved a great reputation as an orator and theologian. Here he gained the friendship of the elector Frederick "the Wise" of Saxony, who later became his powerful protector and one of the chiefs of the Protestant party. Indignant at the shameful traffic in indulgences then being carried on in his district by one Tetzel, a Dominican monk, Luther nailed, in 1517, his famous "ninety-five theses" to the door of the church in Wittenberg. Altho these theses were mild as compared with the doctrines Luther later advanced. they gave rise to widespread discussion, and Luther rapidly went forward to an open attack on the papacy.

Leo X., the pope then reigning, ordered Luther's arrest, but Frederick the Wise, arranged that the papal legate should first hear Luther's cause in Augsburg. This conference came to nothing. The next stage was brought about by Eck, a Dominican, who forced a prolonged debate upon Luther at Leipsic. From this Eck ultimately retired on the illogical plea that he couldn't debate any further with a "Hussite," as the followers of the great Bohemian reformer, John Huss, were called. A papal bull condemning

Luther to death, followed. To this Luther made answer by publicly burning the bull and a copy of the laws of the Church. Sentence was suspended, however, until the Diet, the great council of the Holy Roman Empire, should have heard his case. Before the Diet, Luther heroically refused to recant and was declared an outlaw. Frederick the Wise concealed him in one of his castles.

While in hiding Luther began that wonderful translation of the Bible to which German literature is so heavily indebted. Chafing at confinement he soon boldly reappeared in public, preaching and teaching in defiance of both papacy and empire. Altho Luther desired the movement to remain a spiritual one, it got beyond his control and he was forced to appeal to the German princes who favored his doctrines. These princes formed themselves into a party within the Empire, and at the Diet of Speyer, or Spires, issued a "Protest," (from which the name Protestant is derived), against a decree forbidding religious changes. Later they formed the League of Schmalkald and the Reformation passed into the hands of soldiers and statesmen.

As a reformer, Luther went a much shorter distance from Rome than any other of the great Protestant leaders. His character, of course, is not seen in the same light by both Catholics and Protestants; but there is no denying his splendid gifts of mind and character nor the immensity of his achievements. His historical position is among the foremost men of all time.

In 1524 Luther renounced his vows as a monk, and shortly afterward married a noblewoman who had formerly been a nun. His later years were darkened by illness and mental depression. He died in 1546, before the strife between Catholics and Protestants had begun in deadly earnest.

Page 18. The Order of Jesuits.

Properly, the Society of Jesus, the most renowned religious order of the Catholic Church. It was founded in 1534 by Ingnatius Loyola, (see Note, St. Ignatius, Vol. V, page 297), a Spaniard, who had formerly been a soldier. The order became the most ardent upholder of the Church, and to it is due in no small part the checking of the spread of the Reformation in many Catholic countries, and that reform movement in the Catholic Church itself, which was, strictly speaking, the true Reformation. The order has suffered from fierce opposition and was temporarily suppressed by Pope Clement XIV. in 1773. It is, however, still powerful. The order has produced many illustrious scholars. The extraordinary missionary zeal of its members led them into the most remote parts of the world, spreading Catholicism and civilization.

Page 18. John Calvin.

Second only to Luther as a reformer and much greater than he as a theologian was John Calvin. He was French by birth, but, driven from France, his illustrious career is associated with Geneva in Switzerland, which he made the great religious center of Protestantism. He died in 1549. "Calvinism" is the term applied to the doctrines which he framed, and since the English Puritans who settled New England were Calvinists, the influence of Calvin was very potent in shaping the early history of the United States.

Page 19. Coligni and Condé.

These two men were the principal military chiefs of the Reformation in France in its early stages. The Prince of Condé was the first commander-in-chief of the Huguenot forces. Condé was murdered after his defeat at Jarnac in 1569, and Coligni succeeded to the command. Coligni

was not a great general, but he was determined and immovable in the face of disaster. In those days generals and admirals commanded either in naval or military operations. Coligni was killed in the massacre of St. Bartholomew. The Prince of Condé was a member of the royal family of France. He must not be confused with the "Great Condé," who lived nearly a century later and who was one of the greatest generals of France.

Page 19. Charlemagne.

Charlemagne was the greatest sovereign of the middle ages and is one of the most conspicuous men in history. He was the grandson of Charles Martel (see introduction to First Course). His dominions embraced France, the Netherlands, Germany, Austria and parts of Hungary, Spain and Italy. On his death his territories were divided, whence originated the French Kingdom and the Germanic or Holy Roman Empire. As has been the case with many of the very great figures of the past, a number of legends sprang up around his name, and many things accomplished by other men have been credited to him. He died in 814.

Page 19. Guise.

The Guise family numbered several illustrious members. The duke of Guise referred to in the text, was Francis of Lorraine, the head of the Catholic party in France, and one of the greatest generals of his day. He was assassinated by a Huguenot in 1563. His brother Charles was the celebrated "Cardinal of Lorraine." Mary, Queen of Scots, was his niece.

Page 26. Catharine de Medici.

This woman has a very bad name, indeed, in history. She was the daughter of the Duke of Urbino, a nephew of pope Leo X. She married Henry II., king of France,

and was the mother of three kings, Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III. When Francis II. died, she became the ruler of France during the minorities of the two other boy-kings. She is said to have led her sons into vice so as to weaken their minds and thus increase her own power. She is commonly held responsible for the massacre of St. Bartholomew, one of the greatest stains upon French history.

Page 29. King of Navarre.

Henry, later Henry IV. of France, owing to his birth became the nominal leader, and when older, by virtue of his great abilities, was the actual leader of the Huguenots (see note on Reformation). Before the battle of Ivry in 1590, he made a speech to his soldiers, in which he told them, in case they lost sight of their leader to follow the white plume on his helmet, for that would always be found on the road to honor. This has become one of the famous sayings of history. A punctilious Spanish ambassador was once astounded on being ushered into the royal chamber for an audience with Henry IV., to find him in the presence of the Queen on the floor on all fours, playing horse with his children. "Are you a father?" he asked the astounded diplomat. On receiving an answer in the affirmative he continued his gallop saying, "In that case I can finish the round of the room." With the exception of Napoleon, he is perhaps the greatest of French sovereigns. His reign was distinguished by sagacious statesmanship. He was assassinated by a Catholic fanatic in 1610.

Page 40. Benedictines.

The Benedictines took their name from St. Benedict, who founded the order in Italy in 529. The order became very rich and powerful throughout Europe, and some of its abbots acquired the rank and power of princes. The Bene-

dictines, unlike some religious orders in the Middle Ages, devoted themselves to industry, literature and art, and for this service civilization owes them a great debt of gratitude.

Page 48. Phryne, Cleopatra, Messalina.

Phryne is famed in the history of art as the model of Praxiteles, one of the greatest of the Greek sculptors. She posed for some of his celebrated statues of Venus, and since she was called the most beautiful woman of her day she must have been quite worthy to impersonate the goddess of beauty.

Cleopatra hardly needs a note. She is supposed to have been one of the most beautiful women of all time. Julius Cæsar fell a victim to her charms; Mark Antony, tho a valorous soldier and an able general and politician, idled away his time with her while Octavius wrested the Roman Empire from his grasp.

Messalina is one of the names which provoke a shudder. She was probably the most infamous woman in history. She was the wife of the Roman Emperor Claudius. Even her stupid husband at last became aware of her extraordinary crimes, and gave orders for her execution.

Page 48. Amphion, Circe, Olympus.

These names take us out of the gloomy times of religious upheaval back to the days of Ancient Greece. Amphion, according to Greek mythology, was an incomparable musician, the son of Zeus, the king of heaven, who reigned on the summit of Mount Olympus, the abode of the gods. Amphion builded the walls of Thebes by playing on his lyre to the stones, which under the persuasive strains took their places in the walls of their own accord.

Circe, according to legend, was an enchantress who turned men into animals. Ulysses, King of Ithaca, the craftiest of the Greek leaders in the Trojan war, came

to her island on his return journey from Troy. Circe turned his companions into swine, but Ulysses resisted her enchantment, and made her release his men.

Page 58. Fort Charles.

The site of this fort is near the present town of Beaufort, South Carolina. Fort Carolinia, built by Laudonnère, was, like Fort Charles, named in honor of Charles IX. of France. The English retained the name Carolina for their later colony, as being equally complimentary to their own sovereign, Charles II.

Page 100. Chain-Shot.

Chain-shot consisted of two balls fastened together by a chain. In the days of sailing vessels it was used in naval combats for cutting the enemy's rigging.

Page 104. Philip II.

We have already referred to this monarch in the Introduction to the First Course and in the note on the Reformation. In order to stamp out heresy in his dominions Philip decreed that any person who possessed, or even gave away or sold a copy of the writings of Luther or Calvin, and any person not a priest, who should read the Bible should be put to death. His incredible bigotry led him to employ the most excessive rigors of the Inquisition to carry out his policy of extirpation. Under this direful oppression, the Netherlands, strongly Protestant, rose, and against their heroic resistance Philip's most desperate measures and ablest commanders failed. It is a satisfaction to record the total destruction of the great fleet, "The Invincible Armada," with which he hoped to conquer England. He was successful, however, in his war against France, and, strange enemy for the great champion of Catholicism, the Pope.

In his reign occurred the great naval victory of Lepanto,

won by his half-brother, Don Juan of Austria, against the Turks. The crown of Portugal also fell into his hands. His fanatical measures wrecked the industry and commerce of his country, and Spain's rapid decline dates from his administration. He is generally regarded as one of the most detestable sovereigns in history. We should always be cautious, however, about sweeping denunciations or unqualified praise in regard to historical characters. Philip was a morose bigot, and his measures were cruel to the last degree; but his acts were in accordance with what he believed to be the dictates of his religious and political duty. His attitude toward Protestantism seems to have been very much the same as that of a surgeon toward a malignant growth. The process of removal may be terribly severe, but otherwise death will certainly ensue. Few sovereigns have been more laborious in state affairs, and those historians who have defended him claim for him redeeming traits of character, especially in his private life.

Page 106. Richard III.

Richard III. was an able but very unscrupulous king of England, the brother and successor of Edward IV. The murder in the Tower of London of his two young nephews, who stood between him and the crown, is a familiar incident. He was deformed and was nicknamed "Crookback."

Page 123. Sir John Hawkins.

John Hawkins is one of the English naval heroes. Early in his career he engaged in a profitable traffic in slaves, whom he captured in Africa and forced upon the Spaniards in America in exchange for valuable produce. He succeeded so well that Queen Elizabeth gave him assistance and sanctioned his piratical voyages. On one of them, however, in 1567, two years after succoring Laudonière, he was caught

in the harbor of Vera Cruz, by an overwhelmingly large Spanish fleet, and only two of his ships escaped after a stubborn fight. His exploit won him great fame and popular favor. He was elected to Parliament and made Treasurer of the Navy, in which position he exercised great influence in naval affairs. He was made a knight for his skill and bravery as rear-admiral in the victorious battles with the Spanish Armada. Sir Francis Drake, who was one of the survivors of the Vera Cruz disaster, will be dealt with in Vol. IV.

Page 125. St. Anthony.

St. Anthony, or Antony, was an Egyptian, renowned for asceticism, which he founded as an institution in the monasteries of the Catholic Church. He retired from the world and took up his abode in a tomb and other remote retreats, returning from time to time to instruct his followers and dispute with heretics. His solitude, bodily rigors, and ardent temperament gave rise to disorders of the imagination in which he believed himself to be constantly assailed by the devil in various forms, sometimes terrifying and sometimes pleasant. Artists have found his Satanic visions of beautiful women attractive material for representation. He was profoundly revered by his contemporary Christians, and is regarded as one of the greatest of the saints. He died in 356.

There is another saint of the same name, a Portuguese, called St. Anthony of Padua, in order to distinguish him from St. Anthony the Great. He was renowned as a preacher and, it is said, once preached to a school of fishes, who signified their appreciation of his oratory by listening to him very attentively. He died in 1231.

Page 158. Queen Mary.

See note on the Reformation on page 2.

Page 229. Gascony.

Gascony was one of the great provinces into which France was formerly divided. Readers of Dumas will remember the dashing D'Artagnan as a Gascon.

Page 228. Galley.

A galley was a ship propelled chiefly by oars. Galleys were used as war vessels from very early times on account of their great speed and ease of manipulation. Readers of "Ben-Hur" will be familiar with the form of a Roman galley and the manner in which slaves were chained to the tiers of oars. A similar type of vessel was used as late as the gattle of Lepanto in 1571 (see Introduction to First Course). Criminals and captives were made to endure slavery at the oars of these vessels. The Moorish pirates who formerly swarmed in the Mediterranean had large numbers of Christian galley slaves.

The Maltese mentioned in the text as the rescuers of De Gourges (or De Gourgues) from the Turks were the famous Knights of Malta, or to quote their full title, the Knights Hospitalers of St. John of Jerusalem. They were an order of military monks, similar to the Knights Templars. They were prominent during the Crusades, and became very rich, powerful and warlike. At the time of this story their headquarters was the Island of Malta, whence they repulsed an attack of the Turks in 1565. A feeble form of the order is still in existence.

Page 259. Culverin.

A culverin was a long cannon, of the largest size used at this period.

Page 281. Melendez.

Recent research has reduced the evidence for the inscriptions alleged to have been placed above the bodies of their victims by Melendez and de Gourgues to very

small proportions. It has also displayed the conduct of Melendez and the Spanish during the conflict with the French in Florida in a much more favorable light than that in which it has long been regarded. Melendez is properly written *Menéndez.*

Page 283. Portugal.

Portugal was not as extensively concerned with the affairs of the New World as Spain, but its former possession of Brazil made it an American power, and a brief sketch of its history will be useful. Like Spain, Portugal was once part of the Roman Empire, of which it formed the province of Lusitania. It also fell under the domination of the Moors, who were driven out of the country in the reign of Alfonso I. (1128-1185), the first king of Portugal. The country developed very rapidly, particularly in the reign of John I. (1383-1433), whose son Henry, called the "Navigator," was learned and enterprising and energetically promoted the exploration of the African coast. A succession of great navigators, such as Magellan, Cabral, Dias (who discovered the Cape of Good Hope) and Vasco da Gama, and the great conqueror Albuquerque (whose name is one of the most illustrious in Portuguese history), gave to Portugal a vast empire in America, Africa, and the East Indies.

By the middle of the 16th century (about the time of this story), the power of Portugal was at its height. Its decline was as rapid as its rise. A dispute over the succession to the throne having arisen in 1580 the country easily fell into the hands of Philip II. of Spain (see note, page 104) who helped to wreck it along with his other dominions. In 1807, John VI., being unable to resist Napoleon, whose troops invaded Portugal, fled to Brazil. When he had recovered the Portuguese crown, after Napoleon's downfall, he continued his Brazilian capital as the seat of government. His son, Dom Pedro I., declared himself Emperor of Brazil, which became an independent country, in 1822. He was forced to

abdicate in favor of his son Dom Pedro II. in 1831, whose reign came to a close when Brazil became a republic in 1889. Dom Pedro I. returned to Portugal, and after defeating his brother, who had declared himself king, he reinstated his young daughter, in whose favor he had previously abdicated the throne of Portugal. Portugal, like Spain, possesses now only memories of her former greatness.

Page 300. Amphitrite.

Amphitrite was, according to the Greek mythology, the goddess of the sea. She was the wife of Poseidon, the Greek Neptune.

Page 308. Te Deum.

A solemn Latin hymn of thanksgiving, so called from its opening words, *Te Deum Laudamus*—We praise Thee, O God.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume III.

Who were Magellan, Verrazano, Cartier and the Cabots? *Page* 2 *and Introductory Note.*

What was the Reformation? *Page* 2 *and note.*

Who were Luther, Zwingli, and Melanchthon? *Page* 10 *and notes.*

Who were the Huguenots? *Page* 19 *and note, Reformation, page* 2.

Give a brief account of Admiral Coligni's efforts to colonize America. *Pages* 19-33.

Who was John Ribault? *Pages* 26, 32.

What was the fate of Ribault's first colony? *Pages* 58-60.

Who founded Fort Carolinia? *Page* 67.

Did Laudonnière favor the piratical cruise of his subordinates? *Page* 78.

How did he treat them on their return *Page* 107.
Who was Sir John Hawkins? *Page* 123 *and notes.*
What assistance did he render Laudonnière? *Page* 124.
On what mission did Melendez come to Carolinia?
Pages 142, 159.
How did Ribault design to meet Melendez? *Page* 145.
What brought disaster upon his plans? *Page* 153.
Who founded St. Augustine? *Page* 161.
Are there any older cities founded by Europeans in North America? *Note Vol. I, page* 234.
How did Melendez treat its inhabitants after he had captured Fort Carolinia? *Pages* 183-186.
How was Laudonnière received on his return to France?
Page 188.
What was the fate of Ribault? *Page* 194.
Who was de Gourgues? Relate some of his adventures.
Page 228 *and note.*
With what ambition was he fired? *Page* 229.
How did he wreak vengeance upon the Spaniards?
Pages 260, 281.

The introductory note would serve as the basis of a review of the principal voyages of discovery to the New World. The notes on the Reformation, page 2; on Melanchton, the Inquisition, page 10; Zwingli, Luther, page 17; Jesuits, Calvin, page 18; Coligni, Condé, Guise, page 19; Catharine de Medici, page 26; Henry IV., page 29; Philip II., page 104, and Charles V., Vol. II., page 167, would supply ample material for an essay on the Reformation. An essay entitled "Forts Carolinia and San Mattheo" would disclose the degree of the student's familiarity with the greater part of the volume.

NOTES FOR THE SECOND COURSE

Volume IV

Page 1. Sir Henry Morgan.

Morgan was the most famous of those buccaneers, or pirates, whom the wealth of the Spanish Indies attracted in swarms. He captured and plundered many cities, including Panama, his men committing frightful excesses. Morgan fared better than most of the buccaneer leaders, who usually came to a violent end; for his remarkable naval and military genius (and his ill-gotten gold, too, it is said) commended him to Charles II., who conferred the knight's title of "Sir" upon him, and sent him back to Jamaica as lieutenant-governor and commander-in-chief. Morgan was born in Wales in 1635 and died in Jamaica in 1688.

Page 1. Sir Francis Drake.

Drake is one of the favorite heroes of English school-boys. He commanded a ship in Sir John Hawkins' fleet which was destroyed by the Spaniards at Vera Cruz in 1567 (see note, Vol. III., page 123). His ship and that of Hawkins were the only two that escaped. A few years later, however, he wreaked vengeance upon the Spaniards by ravaging the Isthmus of Panama. In 1577 he set out on his famous voyage around the world, the first made by an Englishman. He plundered Spanish cities all the way along the coast of South America, and took possession of what is now California for Queen Elizabeth. He then turned westward and reached England by rounding the Cape of Good Hope. Elizabeth knighted him for this achievement, which also gained for him the title of the "Master-Thief of the Unknown World."

After the voyage on which he rescued Raleigh's colony, as described in the text, he introduced tobacco and potatoes into England, an honor also attributed to Sir Walter

Raleigh. In 1587 Philip II. began to prepare an immense fleet, the "Armada" (see note, page 38), for the invasion of England. Drake was sent to make a descent on the Spanish coast and destroy as much of the fleet under construction as possible. He sank and burned about a hundred unfinished vessels in Cadiz harbor, and destroyed fortifications and pillaged cities along the coast. This, with grim playfulness, he called "Singeing the Spanish King's beard." In 1588 he was vice-admiral of the fleet which defeated the "Armada," and bore a conspicuous part in the fighting. After a few years of peaceful pursuits, during which he was elected to Parliament, he went back again in the West Indies, at his old freebooting trade. The expedition was unsuccessful, however, and both he and Sir John Hawkins, who accompanied him, died in the course of it. Visitors to Plymouth are invariably shown to the spot where Drake insisted on finishing his game of bowls with Lord Howard of Effingham, while the Armada, in the form of a great crescent, seven miles long, was bearing up the Channel, assuring the impatient commander-in-chief that there was plenty of time to finish both the game and the Spaniards.

Page 4. Sir Martin Frobisher.

The name of this famous sailor is perpetuated on the map by Frobisher Bay, which he discovered while making the first English expedition in search of the northwest passage to China. He was a companion of Drake's in many expeditions against the Spaniards. He received his title of "Sir" for his distinguished conduct in the attack on the Armada.

Page 25. Alexander VI.

This Pope, whose name was Rodrigo Borgia, has a reputation for infamy that is exceeded by few names in history. A Spaniard by birth, he first followed the profession of a

lawyer, then that of a soldier, for both of which he was admirably fitted. The accession of his uncle to the papel throne as Calixtus III. secured him a cardinal's hat at the age of twenty-five, and thirty-seven years later he succeeded to the tiara. He was a man of great energy and ability, though utterly depraved in character. He used the temporal and spiritual powers of the church to further his own ambition and particularly to build up a kingdom in Italy for his son Cesare, who inherited his father's evil character along with much of his ability. Lucrezia Borgia, another name of infamy, was a daughter of Alexander VI. Bad as the Borgias undoubtedly were, their wickedness has been exaggerated. Alexander's bull dividing the New World between Spain and Portugal has already been referred to.

Page 26. Anne Boleyn.

Anne Boleyn (pronounced Bullen) was the second wife of Henry VIII. and the mother of Queen Elizabeth. She first captivated the amorous and fickle king, but at last incurred his displeasure and was executed, giving place to a new queen.

Page 26. Thomas Cromwell.

The student, of course, will not confuse Thomas Cromwell with the great Oliver Cromwell, who lived a century later. Thomas Cromwell raised himself from lowly birth to the earldom of Essex and the highest offices in the State. His rigorous suppression of the monasteries gained him the title of "Hammer of the Monks." He fell a victim to Henry VIII.'s violence and passions, being executed in 1540, after having promoted an unhappy marriage between Henry and Anne of Cleves.

Page 28. Queen Elizabeth.

The two most illustrious periods of English history bear the names of women rulers—the Victorian and the Elizabethan. Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII. and

Anne Boleyn, and inherited serious blemishes of character from both father and mother. She was brought up a Protestant, and was in no small danger during the reign of her Catholic half-sister, called "Bloody Mary." After the accession of Elizabeth to the throne, she reintroduced Protestanism, but her measures were so discreet that the country passed definitely over to the new religion without any serious upheaval. She was wise in her choice of ministers, and the famous William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, the founder of the family to which two recent English prime ministers (the Marquis of Salisbury and Arthur Balfour) belonged, was her chief administrator almost throughout her reign. The defeat of the Spanish Armada (note, page 38) was the principal military event of her reign.

Such illustrious men as Shakespeare and Spencer, the poets; Sir Philip Sidney and Sir Walter Raleigh, the author-soldiers; and Lord Bacon, the philosopher, have given undenying glory to the name of the queen who had the good fortune to reign while they lived. Elizabeth had numerous love affairs; but she never allowed them to interfere with State affairs, and refused to marry, for which reason she is called the "Virgin Queen." Her execution of the unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots, her rival claimant to the throne of England, tho partly excusable as a political necessity, is a blot on her reign. Elizabeth is regarded as having been one of the ablest of European sovereigns.

Page 30. Sir Walter Raleigh.

The name of Walter Raleigh is one of the most illustrious in English history, as soldier, sailor, and author. Besides his important efforts in the colonizing of North America, which are described in the text, he conducted explorations in the Orinoco region of South America while searching for "El Dorado" (note, Vol. II, page 95). He is usually credited with having introduced tobacco and the

potato into Europe. He achieved great distinction in naval operations against the Spaniards at Cadiz and Fayal. After Elizabeth died he lost favor at court, was sentenced to death and thrown into the Tower of London in 1603. Here he remained for thirteen years, during which time he wrote his renowned History of the World, and several philosophical, religious and poetic works. After his release he led another expedition to South America which turned out very unfortunately. His forces destroyed the Spanish settlement of San Tomas, and on his return the Spanish Court demanded his punishment. He was executed in 1618. Sir Humphrey Gilbert and he were sons of the same mother.

Page 34. Sir Richard Grenville.

Grenville was a cousin of Sir Walter Raleigh. His unparalleled exploit of fighting his little ship the *Revenge,* for fifteen hours, against a Spanish fleet of fifteen ships, is celebrated by Tennyson in his poem, "The Revenge." He surrendered only when mortally wounded, and when his ship was a wreck, his powder gone, and his decks a slaughter-house. Three days after his surrender to the fleet his single ship had riddled, he died, 1591.

Page 34. Thomas Cavendish.

Cavendish was the third seaman to circumnavigate the globe. In 1586 he passed the Strait of Magellan and, following Drake's example, plundered every Spanish ship that had the misfortune to cross his track along the coast from Chile to Mexico. Nineteen fell a prey to him, including one belonging to the king of Spain himself, with which he captured a cargo of immense value. Two years and fifty days were consumed in his voyage around the world. So great was the value of the plunder he obtained that he arrayed himself and his sailors in silk clothing, made damask sails for his ship, and draped his topmasts with cloth of gold. This ill-gotten wealth quickly vanished and he was shortly

reduced to undertaking another free-booting voyage. This ended disastrously, and in the course of it he died of chagrin because of the mutiny of his crew.

Page 38. The "Invincible" Armada.

This was the boastful title bestowed upon the huge fleet with which Philip II., smarting under the English attacks on Spanish commerce and New World possessions, and fired by his fanatical hatred of England as a Protestant country, designed to conquer it. Sir Francis Drake's destructive raid upon it while in preparation has already been referred to. In 1588 it set forth on its disastrous career, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia. About 130 ships and 27,000 men comprised the fleet. Awaiting it in Flanders, for the invasion of England, was a large Spanish army. Unhappily for the Spaniards, Howard, Drake, Hawkins and Frobisher were also awaiting it, and in their light, swift little vessels, they harried it unmercifully in its ponderous course up the English channel. When the Armada had anchored off Calais, Lord Howard of Effingham, the English Commander-in-Chief, sent several fire-ships among the enemy. This drove them out into the open sea, where Drake attacked and inflicted severe losses upon them. After this defeat the Spaniards thought of nothing but escape to Spain, and dreading an attempt to repass the Channel, began the return voyage around the north of Scotland and Ireland. Here storms completed the wreck and only a doleful remnant of the "Invincible" Armada got back to Spain. With this disaster ended the naval greatness of Spain, once the foremost power of Europe. The loss of life attending this ill-starred expedition was so great that it was said every family in Spain lost a member.

Page 38. Richard Hakluyt.

There are two distinguished men of this name, who were cousins. From the more famous of the two the present "Hakluyt Society" takes its name. He was an eminent

writer on geographical subjects, and his writings upon the voyages of early discoveries have achieved great fame. He was an archdeacon of the English Church. The other Richard was in active communication with all the chief English explorers and adventurers in the New World, giving them valuable advice and assistance.

Page 49. Plymouth.

Plymouth, England, is the city from which Plymouth, Mass., the town of the Pilgrim Fathers, takes its name. It is an important port, and one of England's principal naval stations. It is situated in Devonshire, on the South coast. The fleet which defeated the Armada set out from Plymouth.

Page 50. Romans.

The Romans first landed in Britain under the great Julius Caesar in 55 B. C. They held the country for about 400 years. Remains of the Roman buildings, roads, and so forth, still exist. Many names of English towns are of Roman origin, and some have been transferred to this country. Those ending in *caster,* for example, such as Lancaster, are reminders of the ancient Roman *castra,* the Latin word for military camps.

Page 58. Puritans.

See note, Reformation, Vol. III., page. 2.

Page 60. John Smith.

Smith claimed that he had been made a noble by the Prince of Transylvania for his exploit in cutting off the heads of the Turks referred to in the incident narrated on this page, and granted the privilege of wearing a coat-of-arms with the three bleeding Turkisn heads upon it.

Page 70. Sir Ferdinando Gorges.

Gorges bore so prominent a part in the early English settlement of America that he has been called "The Father of English Colonization in America." He was an officer in the English army, and was made a knight for distinguished conduct at the siege of Rouen. Later he became governor of the city of Plymouth, in England. He actively interested himself in many American ventures, and eventually was made Lord Proprietary of the Province of Maine, with hereditary privileges. See Vol. V, pages 132-137.

Page 71. James I.

James I. succeeded Elizabeth on the throne of England in 1603. Before his accession he was James VI. of Scotland, and through him the two crowns were united. The legislative union of the two countries as Great Britain did not take place until 1707. James was a son of Mary, Queen of Scots. He was a man of great learning and ability, but somehow contrived to render himself constantly ridiculous.

Page 71. Sir John Popham.

Popham, as Chief Justice of England, presided at several celebrated State trials, among them that of Sir Walter Raleigh and of Guy Fawkes. Fawkes, a Catholic zealot, was to have touched the fuse leading to a quantity of gunpowder, stored beneath the Houses of Parliament for the purpose of blowing up King James I. and all the Lords and Commons when Parliament assembled, and thus destroy the supporters of Protestantism in England. Everything was in readiness when he was arrested. The event is still commemorated on November 5th, giving the English schoolboys an opportunity to set off fireworks and toy cannons. A search of the vaults of the Houses of Parliament by the Yeomen of the Guard, picturesquely uniformed as they were 400 years

ago and armed with partizans, is one of the historic formalities which are still gone through at the opening of Parliament.

Page 72. Homage.

The doing of homage and the swearing of fealty were parts of the ceremony by which in the old feudal days a vassal acknowledged the authority of the overlord from whom he received his lands. It was sometimes exacted from one sovereign by another, as for example when the kings of France demanded homage from the kings of England for their dukedom of Normandy, which was part of the French kingdom. There were all ranks of vassals, from the small tenant of a minor knight or baron up to the great dukes, princes and kings. Each, kneeling and placing his hands between the knees of his suzerain, acknowledged himself the dependant of some greater lord. The popes at one time aspired to be the suzerains, or overlords, of all Christendom, and the great Pope Innocent III., who died in 1216, all but achieved this splendid ambition.

Page 74. The Tower of London.

The Tower of London is one of the most famous buildings in the world. Part of the present structure dates from the reign of William the Conqueror (1066-1087), and parts of its foundations may be of Roman origin. Although now only a museum, a storehouse and a military barrack, it everywhere bears traces of its bloodstained history, and a visit to it is one of great, but depressing interest. It was originally a fortress and a royal palace, the chief defense, and sometimes the chief menace, of the city of London. It early became a state prison, and some of the noblest men in English history have been imprisoned within its walls. A great number of political prisoners of high rank and great fame have been beheaded in the courtyard of the Tower, or on Tower Hill, nearby, and the bodies

of most of them lie in the little chapel of St. Peter ad Vincula within its walls. The block on which Queen Anne Boleyn (note, page 26), was executed is preserved in the Tower.

Page 79. Capes Henry and Charles.

Princess Henry and Charles, in whose honor these capes were named, were sons of James I. Prince Charles was afterward Charles I., who was executed by the Parliamentary revolutionists.

Page 96. Parnassian.

Mount Parnassus, in Greece, was supposed in ancient times to be a favorite haunt of the Muses, the special goddesses, nine in all, of literature (particularly of poetry), and the arts and sciences.

Page 115. Phalanx.

The word *phalanx* comes from the Greek, in which language it was applied to the formation in mass of infantry. The Macedonian phalanx, perfected by Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, made the Macedonians the greatest soldiers of their age. It consisted of many ranks of soldiers, armed with spears so long that those of the rear ranks projected well beyond the front rank, presenting a wall bristling with spears to the enemy. The Greek phalanx was invincible until the Romans opposed and shattered it with their swiftly moving, easily handled maniples of one hundred men, each commanded by a centurion.

Page 132. Levitical Law.

The Levitical Law was the ancient Jewish code, and was set forth in the biblical book of Leviticus, so called from the priestly tribe of the Levites. The tendency of the Puritans was toward a rigid observance of these ancient laws.

Page 135. Bulling the Market.

This is a Stock Exchange phrase. The "Bulls" are those stock dealers who wish to see stocks go up in price, while the "Bears" are those who expect to profit by a decline in prices. The operations of these two parties to make prices fluctuate according to their interests make the stock market a most desirable place for "Lambs," as amateur speculators are called, to keep out of.

Page 163. Cincinnatus.

Lucius Quinctius Cincinnatus was a semi-legendary character of ancient Rome. According to the story, when the representatives of the state came to him to announce his election as dictator, (the officer vested with supreme arbitrary authority in times of grave public peril) they found him plowing on his small farm. After repelling the danger he resigned his dictatorship and again retired to his farm. The present Society of the Cincinnati derives its title from him, in allusion to the return to peaceful pursuits of the officers of the Revolution. For the same reason Washington has been called the "Cincinnatus of the West."

Page 235. John Smith.

After quitting Virginia, John Smith lived quietly in England for four years. In 1614 he made a profitable trading voyage to America, in the course of which he explored the coast of what he then christened New England. He embarked on two other voyages to the same region in the following year, the second of which was terminated by his capture by the French. As "Admiral of New England," he endeavored unsuccessfully to obtain means to establish a colony in that region. He died in London in 1631, after having written a history of the events in which he had figured so prominently and honorably.

Page 266. Evil Eye.

It was not only the American Indians who cherished the absurd superstition of the Evil Eye; similar beliefs have been prevalent among many peoples. Indeed, the preposterous fear of a person with the Evil Eye, after contact with whom some direful calamity may ensue, is widespread in Italy to-day, where it is entertained by even intelligent people. The mere mention of the name of a person who is credited with possessing an evil eye is sufficient to set these people crossing their fingers to ward off the spell, if indeed it doesn't send them panic-stricken out of the room. Pope Pius IX. was once credited with this malign gift.

Page 279. Masque.

The masque, or mask, was a form of spectacular dramatic performance, highly popular in the reign of James I., during which several were given of an extraordinary degree of splendor and costliness. Famous poets, artists and musicians combined to supply lines, scenery and music for these productions, in which members of the royal family and the nobility delighted to display their figures and talent as actors. The Inns of Court, the famous society of lawyers, once gave a masque which cost £20,000, probably equal to nearly half a million dollars to-day. During the supremacy of the Puritans under the Commonwealth, masques, in common with all other dramatic performances, and, in fact, with about everything else that furnished amusement to the people, were suppressed and were never revived. John Milton's *Comus* was written as a masque.

Page 287. Pocahontas.

The charming story of John Smith's rescue by Pocahontas has been called in question by some of those ruthless historical critics who are constantly shattering some of our cherished beliefs. Any striking historical incident is apt to

acquire a legendary tone by repeated narration as time wears on, and modern critics have taken it upon themselves to hack off all the picturesque accumulations with which many rather commonplace incidents have become embellished. Still, after all, it is questionable whether a beautiful story, though half a myth, is not more worth cherishing than some dull piece of fact. In this instance it is a satisfaction to state that the Pocahontas romance has had able defenders as well as assailants. At any rate, the picturesque story has become so fixed in literature that it will probably stand out in ages to come as among the principal incidents of the early colonization of America after most of the undoubted facts have been forgotten.

Page 288. France.

With the events narrated in Chapter XVII. begin the permanent settlements by France in Canada. This will, therefore, be a convenient point at which briefly to sketch the history of France.

Of all the modern countries of Europe the history of France has been the most brilliant. As a race the French are gifted and versatile. They emerged early from the barbarism of the Dark Ages and were not long in acquiring a sustained intellectual supremacy over Europe, of which the great number of French words in our language is one striking indication.

The original inhabitants of France were Celts, similar to the original peoples of the British Isles. These were subjugated by the Romans, who thoroughly civilized the country, which they called Gaul (Gallia). When the Roman power fell into decay, France was overrun by Gothic tribes, the chief of whom were the Franks, from whom the country takes its name. The Saracens attempted its conquest, but Charles Martel ("the Hammer"), destroyed their army in a great battle near Poitiers in 722 and afterward swept them back into Spain. The grandson of Charles Martel was

the illustrious Charlemagne, from the western portion of whose vast empire, divided after his death in 814, sprang the French kingdom (see notes, Charles V., Vol. II., page 167; Charlemagne, Vol. III., page 19). Shortly afterward, the Northmen (see Introduction, First Course) began to ravage the northern coast of France, and at length came in such numbers that the king, Charles the Simple, in 911, was forced to cede to them a large piece of territory. Hence arose the great duchy of Normandy, and, by the Norman conquest of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain in 1066, the kingdom of England.

The descendents of Charlemagne, known as the Carolingians, eventually became very feeble, and in 987 a new dynasty was founded by Hugh Capet, whose descendants, either in the direct or collateral line, ruled France until the Revolution. "Louis Capet" was the name contemptuously applied to Louis XVI. by the revolutionaries. For a long period the history of France was occupied by the desperate struggle of the kings with the great feudal lords of the kingdom, who aspired to practical independence.

The claim of Edward III., king of England, who was a grandson of Philip IV., to the throne of France, when the direct Capetian line came to an end in 1328, plunged France into the disastrous "Hundred Years' War" (1337-1453). The war began with an overwhelming English victory at Crécy, followed by that of Poitiers, in which the English, though outnumbered seven to one, through the generalship of the famous Black Prince, the son of Edward III., hacked to pieces the flower of the French nobility and captured King John (1356). In 1415 young Henry V. of England, renewing the claim to the crown of France, invaded the country and at Agincourt won a second Poitiers against tremendous odds. Nearly all the great nobles of France perished in the terrible slaughter of this battle, and France was so weakened that Henry was made Regent and declared successor to the throne. Happily for both England

and France, death prematurely terminated the brilliant career of Henry V., and after a long and stubborn contest the English were driven step by step from the country. The passionate religious ardor of the famous Joan of Arc, the confident zeal with which she inspired the French and the supernatural fear she struck into the hearts of the English, contributed chiefly to this result.

Under Louis XI. (1461-83), an able, crafty, and conscienceless sovereign, the great vassals of the crown were finally suppressed and the power of the monarch became absolute in France. A strange contrast to Louis was his great rival, the impetuous and warlike Charles the Bold of Burgundy, who almost succeeded in making a great kingdom of his French duchy of Burgundy.

Charles VIII., in 1494, by his invasion of Italy, launched his country upon a series of ambitious foreign enterprises. Continuing this policy, Francis I., in 1525, met disastrous defeat at the hands of Charles V.'s general Lannoy at Pavia (see note, Charles V., Vol. II., page 167). On the death of Henry II., 1559, Catharine de Medici (see note, Vol. III., page 26) became regent for her infant son, and the terrible civil wars, political and religious, between the Catholics and Huguenots, broke out (see note, Reformation, Vol. III., page 2).

To this melancholy period of bloodshed succeeded the enlightened rule of Henry IV. (note, Vol. III., page 29), no small part of the credit of which is due to his illustrious minister Sully. It was during Henry's reign that the settlements in Canada referred to in Chapter XVII. were made.

Henry IV., in 1610, was succeeded by his spiritless son Louis XIII., through the greater part of whose reign the real sovereign was the great Cardinal Richelieu, than whom few of the world's statesmen occupy a higher rank. He extinguished the Hugenots as a political party, but left them the enjoyment of religious liberty, and, prince of

the Catholic Church as he was, gave the Protestants of Germany help in the Thirty Years' War (note, Reformation, Vol. III., page 2), which rendered their final success under Swedish leadership possible. His aim in so doing was the weakening of the Holy Roman Empire.

Cardinal Mazarin, an Italian, was the next actual ruler of France during the boyhood of Louis XIV. This prince, however, early assumed the management of affairs, and brought the government of France to such a pitch of centralization that he could say with perfect truthfulness, "The State! I am the State." Under Louis XIV. France reached an unexampled pitch of splendor, not only through her military conquests, to which Turenne, the great general, Vauban, the great engineer, Colbert, the great financier, and Luvois, the great war minister, principally contributed; but through the intellectual achievements of a number of extraordinary geniuses, of whom we have space to mention no more that Molière, Corneille and Racine, the poets; La Fontaine, the author of the famous "Fables"; Pascal, the great philosopher; Bossuet, the theologian, and Nicolas Poussin and Claude Lorrain, the painters. The close of Louis' reign was unfortunate. His insatiable ambition united Europe against him, William III. of England being his inveterate enemy. The great Duke of Marlborough inflicted a series of crushing defeats upon his armies, and with the battle of La Hogue (1692) naval supremacy passed to England.

After Louis XIV.'s death, in 1715, events moved rapidly forward to the terrible upheaval of the Revolution through a period of misrule and official debauchery unparalleled in modern history. With abandoned women like Pompadour and DuBarry ruling France through a vicious king, it is no wonder that the country suffered humiliation abroad and degeneration within. In the "Seven Years' War" (1754-1763) England wrested the American colonial possessions of France from her, and put an end to her ambitions for an Indian empire.

In 1789 the Revolution broke out, an upheaval that was the result of centuries of oppression of the lowest classes, who were unmercifully taxed to support the grandiose projects and infamous luxuries of monarchs and idle aristocrats. Louis XVI., a well-meaning but stupid individual, and his beautiful but frivolous wife, Marie Antoinette, were executed; and the government of France passed into the hands of men who might be likened to a pack of wolves. Now rose the Reign of Terror, a period of sickening slaughter. But in all this chaos there were some men like Vergniaud whose souls were noble and heroic; men moved by a holy passion for the people. Soon a reaction set in; the inexplicable Robespierre perished; order was restored, and Napoleon Bonaparte emerged as the master of France. Remarkable as it may seem, this period of internal convulsion was coincident with splendid military success abroad, and a number of notable victories were added to France's long roll of martial glory. Among the great generals of the Revolutionary government were Hoche, Pichegru, Jourdan, Moreau and Bonaparte. Every young person would do well to read Abbott's "History of the French Revolution," for many of our modern ideas took form in that time of social chaos.

With the career of Napoleon most of our young readers will be sufficiently familiar. This amazing man, though of humble Italian birth, became Emperor of France, led his armies all over Continental Europe, conquered Italy, crushed Austria, sent the armies of Prussia scurrying in panic before him, humbled Russia, placed the crowns of Holland, Spain, Naples and Westphalia on the heads of his relatives and made his baby son king of Rome. Everywhere that his superb military genius directed the splendid troops of France, victory rested.

England's repeated naval victories, notably that of Trafalgar (1805), subsidies to his enemies on the continent, and active aid of the Spaniards when they rose against him; the

disastrous retreat of his forces from Moscow and the national uprising of the conquered Germans, were the principal causes of Napoleon's overthrow. At Waterloo, 1815, the English, Belgians, Dutch, Hanoverians and Prussians, under the chief command of the Duke of Wellington, routed Napoleon's army. He surrendered to the English and was sent into exile on the island of St. Helena. In the beginning of his career Napoleon was an ardent advocate of equal rights; but in his later years his mind seems emptied of well nigh everything but the plots and purposes of a selfish ambition.

After Napoleon's downfall, Louis XVIII., a brother of Louis XVI., came to the throne, followed by another brother Charles X., who was expelled by the brief "revolution of July," in 1830. Louis Philippe was elected successor. The revolution of 1848 put an end to his reign; France became a republic for the second time, and Louis Napoleon, nephew of the great Napoleon, became President. By a bold stroke he turned the republic into an empire, the "Second Empire," as it is called, and as Napoleon III. (Napoleon II. was Napoleon I.'s son, the Duke of Reichstadt, who never reigned), embarked upon a spectacular foreign policy that brought France to the verge of ruin. With his attempt to set up an empire in Mexico, Americans are particularly interested. He joined England in the successful Crimean War against Russia in 1854, and helped to free Italy from Austrian domination in 1859. In 1870 he used a trivial dispute over the succession to the Spanish throne to bring on a war with Germany, which he desired as a means of gaining military glory to strengthen his failing government at home. The great German statesman, Prince Bismarck, also wished for a war with France to consolidate Germany. In light-hearted ignorance of the strength of Prussia and the weakness of his own forces, Napoleon declared war, and the French armies moved forward crying "On to Berlin!" In less than two months Napoleon was a prisoner and his army

had been crushed at the terrible battle of Sedan. The Germans advanced into France, besieged and took Paris and received Alsace and Lorraine and 5,000,000,000 francs as the price of peace. A republic was again declared and a terrible civil strife, known as the Commune, broke out in Paris. France recovered from these stunning blows with a promptness that astonished the world.

The Third Republic has maintained itself creditably in spite of hostile factions. A separation of Church and State has been brought about. The year 1905 saw France and England, which had regarded each other as hereditary enemies ever since the battle of Crécy, come to an understanding. France to-day is not only among the greatest of the world's naval and military powers, but also holds her place in the very van of civilization.

Page 290. La Chine.

La Chine, in French, means China, which indicates the geographical error of the explorers who so named these rapids.

Page 290. L'Acadie.

The word Acadie is now regarded as having been derived from the Indian word *Akade,* which means a place of abundance. It appears in combination in Shubenacadie (which means the place where there is an abundance of nuts), the name of a Nova Scotian river and town. The English rendered the same word as *Quoddy,* as in the compound Passamaquoddy, which means abundance of pollock, hence pollock-ground.

Page 300. Neptune and Mars.

Neptune was the Roman god of the sea, and Mars the god of war. Minerva was also goddess of war, but rather of its science; while Mars delighted in slaughter and turmoil.

Page 300. Damascus.

In the middle ages Damascus was famous for its sword and dagger blades, on which were made designs that remained perfect even when the blades were ground down. This process was known as damaskeening, or damascening. Damascus is the capital of Syria. It no longer makes its clebrated blades, and has declined from its former importance.

Page 313. Argall.

See pages 245-249; 294-302.

Page 355. Conclusion.

Up to the year 1620, with which this, the Second, Course closes, all that is now the United States and Canada was for the most part a vast wilderness. In Jamestown, Virginia, a seed from the tree of English civilization, destined to develop into the Southern Confederacy, had taken root. On the banks of the St. Lawrence river, France had planted a sapling, to be later watered in blood, and another French rootlet in Nova Scotia had been well-nigh trampled down. The Dutch had a seedling on Manhattan Island, on which has since been grafted off-shoots from every nation under the sun.

In spite of the extraordinary exertions of the Spaniards in search of fabled wealth, or perhaps as a consequence of them, they had done little toward colonizing the country north of Mexico. In Florida, St. Augustine languished. After Coronado had explored the great region he had marched over in search of the "Seven Cities of Cibola," Franciscan monks established a chain of mission settlements along the Rio Grande. In 1598 Santa Fé in New Mexico was established. On the west coast the Spanish exploration had been pushed up to California; but it was not until 1769 that they established a missionary settlement in that state.

So we see, except for a few spots on the coasts and here and there along the great rivers, that the American continent north of Mexico, in the year 1620, lay just the same as it had for ages before the coming of the white men in their quaint little ships from the Old World.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume IV

Give a brief account of Sir Francis Drake.
Page 1, *note, and Introductory Note, Vol. III.*

Who planted the first English Colony in America?
Page 14.

How did it terminate? *Page* 18.

Give a brief account of early English exploring voyages to the New World. *Pages* 22-33.

Who was Sir Walter Raleigh? *Pages* 30 *and note,* 74, 75.

Who were Amadas and Barlow? *Page* 32.

Who were Richard Grenville and Thomas Cavendish?
Page 34 *and notes.*

What was the name of the first English child born in America? *Page* 37.

What was the Spanish Armada? *Page* 38 *and note.*

What was the Lost Colony? Describe its fate.
Pages 37, 41, 42.

What did Gosnold and Pring achieve? *Pages* 62, 63.

What were the London and Plymouth Companies, and on what terms were they to colonize America? *Pages* 68, 72.

Give a brief account of the early adventures of John Smith. *Page* 69 *and note.*

Who was Sir Ferdinando Gorges? *Page* 70 *and note.*

Describe the foundation of Jamestown. *Page* 82.

Describe John Smith's Capture by the Indians.
Pages 94-104.

What did Smith think his fate was to be? *Page* 113.
Give a description of Pocahontas. *Page* 117.
In what manner did she save Smith's life? *Page* 121.
How did Smith prevent desertion from the Colony? *Page* 131.
How did Sting-ray Island get its name? *Page* 159.
When did Smith become president of the Colony? *Page* 163.
Describe the crowning of Powhatan by the English. *Page* 171.
To what use did Smith put Pocahontas's warning that Powhatan intended to massacre the English at a feast? *Page* 192-199.
How did the Colony's new charter affect its affairs? *Page* 212.
Who was Henry Hudson? *Page* 216.
When was New Amsterdam founded? *Page* 219.
Describe the attempt to assassinate John Smith. *Page* 223.
Into what condition did Jamestown fall after Smith's departure? *Page* 241.
Who was Lord De la Warr? *Pages* 243, 244.
Describe the seizure of Pocahontas. *Pages* 246-249.
Describe the wedding of John Rolfe and Pocahontas. *Page* 267.
Give a brief account of the visit of Pocahontas to England. *Page* 279.
What was the result of her marriage to Rolfe? *Page* 287.
Give a brief account of the French explorations and early settlements in Canada. *Pages* 288-293.
Who destroyed their settlement at Port Royal? *Page* 296.
Where and when was the first representative assembly held in America? *Page* 317.
Who introduced negro slaves into Virginia? *Page* 320.
How and on what terms did the Virginia colonists obtain wives? *Page* 323.

Name some of the early outlying settlements near Jamestown. *Page* 341.

Give a brief account of the Indian war with the colony. *Pages* 349-354.

In what manner did Virginia become a royal colony? *Page* 354.

The careers of John Smith and Pocahontas would form two very interesting themes for essays, and would embrace the greater part of the ground covered by this volume. The question list above would give hints for material for an essay on the history of Virginia from the departure of John Smith until its erection into a royal colony. Pages 50 to 53 would provide the basis for a short essay on Social Conditions in England during and previous to the reign of Elizabeth.

THIRD COURSE

Comprising Volumes V and VI

OUTLINE OF THE THIRD COURSE

Comprising Volumes V and VI

From the Voyage of the Mayflower Until the Close of Bacon's Rebellion.

First Reading. Vol. V.

Introductory sketch of English History.

Second Reading. Vol. V, pages 1-44.

Emigration of Pilgrims from England to Holland—Their life in Leyden—Negotiations with the Virginia Company.

Third Reading. Vol. V, pages 45-87.

Commercial Company formed by Pilgrims—Sailing of Pilgrims—The Social Compact—The Landing of the Pilgrims—Preliminary Explorations—Selection of Plymouth as Site for the Colony.

Fourth Reading. Vol. V, pages 88-120.

Early hardships—Treaty with the Indians—Augmentation of Colony.

Fifth Reading. Vol. V, note to page 122.

History of Holland.

Sixth Reading. Vol. V, pages 121-154.

The Dutch in America—Settlement of Manhattan—Foundation of Maine and New Hampshire—Lords Commissioners for the American Plantations appointed.

Seventh Reading. Vol. V, pages 155-188.

Dutch and English in the Connecticut Valley.

Eighth Reading. Vol. V, pages 189-224.

Massachusetts Bay Colony—Roger Williams—Religious dissensions—Foundation of Providence—Expedition against the Pequods.

Ninth Reading. Vol. V, pages 225-259.

The Pequod War.

Tenth Reading. Vol V, pages 260-310.

Foundation of New Haven—The Hartford Convention—Settlement of Maryland.

Eleventh Reading. Vol. V, pages 311-360.

Early days in New England—Royal Conflict with the Puritans in England—Confederation of the New England Colonies.

Twelfth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 1-38.

Virginia under the Commonwealth—Conflict between Maryland and Claybourne over Kent Island—Sir William Berkeley's arrival.

Thirteenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 39-76.

The New Netherlands under Kieft and Stuyvesant—Swedish Settlement on the Delaware—Founding of Carolina.

Fourteenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 77-125.

Seizure of New Amsterdam by the English—Religious Persecutions in New England—Virginia after the Restoration.

Fifteenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 126-161.

The founding of New Jersey—The Carolina Charter and Constitution.

Sixteenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 162-212.

The Regicides in America—Sir Henry Vane.

Seventeenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 213-279.

Colonies during the Reign of Charles I.—King Philip's War.

Eighteenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 280-330.

Royalist influence in Virginia—Outbreak of Bacon's Rebellion.

Nineteenth Reading. Vol. VI, pages 331-339.

Capture and Destruction of Jamestown by Bacon—Bacon's death—Berkeley's vengeance on the rebels—Berkeley recalled.

NOTES FOR THE THIRD COURSE

Volume V

Introductory Sketch of English History.

While the settlement of Virginia, as we have seen, was prompted by commercial motives, the settlement of New England by the Pilgrims was the direct outcome of political and social conditions in England. Before proceeding, therefore, to the study of the history of New England it will be well to pause and review the history of Old England as clearly as so vast a subject will here permit.

With the partial conquest of Britain by Julius Cæsar in 55 B. C., the curtain rises on English annals. A century later the country was definitely subjugated and civilized by the Romans, who held it until 409 A. D. After the withdrawal of the Romans, the natives could not withstand the

Angles, Saxons, and Jutes—Germanic tribes who came over from the region about the mouth of the river Elbe. These tribes founded seven small warring states, called the "Heptarchy," which in 827 were united in a single kingdom under Egbert, King of Wessex. The word "England" is a variation of Engle-land, or land of the Angles, the dominant tribe.

Close upon the Angles and Saxons came the Danes, who subjugated the country in turn and merged with its peoples, tho temporarily repelled by Alfred the Great, King of Wessex (871-901). This great sovereign is held in veneration by all Englishmen, not only for his successful struggle against the foreign invaders, but also for his self-sacrificing labors in civilizing his barbarous subjects and in improving their social condition.

Danish sovereignty was reestablished in 1015, by the famous Canute, who ruled Denmark and Norway as well as England. In 1042 a Saxon, Edward the Confessor, again came to the throne. Edward founded Westminster Abbey, and has a greater reputation for piety than for brains or energy. He is one of the Catholic saints. On his death in 1066 the renowned William, duke of Normandy, claimed the throne, and after defeating and slaying his rival, Harold, at the battle of Hastings, became master of England, earning his title of the "Conqueror."

To the Conqueror succeeded his two sons William II. and Henry I. Henry I. married a Saxon princess, favored his Saxon subjects, and by carrying on a war with their aid against Normandy advanced the process of welding the conquering Normans and the conquered Anglo-Saxons in England into a nation of Englishmen.

The Norman dynasty came to an end with Stephen in 1154, after a great civil war between him and Matilda, the daughter of Henry I., over the succession. Henry II., son of Matilda, who by virtue of inheritance and marriage, ruled much more of France than the King of France, came

to the throne. Henry was an able sovereign, and tho he paid much attention to his French dominions, ruled England well. Under him the distinction between Norman and Saxon practically passed away. In this reign, Richard "Strongbow," Earl of Pembroke, invaded Ireland and began the unhappy relations between that country and its English conquerors. Richard the Lionhearted (see Note, Vol. II, page 243), a man of herculean strength, a great knight and a capable general, but an indifferent king, succeeded his father Henry II. and was himself succeeded by his cowardly and infamous brother John, whose reign is signalized by the "Magna Charta," the Great Charter, which the barons, in 1215, wrested from him on the plains of Runnymede. This immortal document established the principles that no man should be imprisoned without fair trial and that no tax should be imposed without the consent of the National Council. It was this wretched king who acknowledged himself the vassal of Pope Innocent III.

During the reign of John's son, Henry III. (1216-72), English political institutions advanced in freedom and strength. Simon de Montfort, the great Earl of Leicester, headed the barons in their revolt against the intolerable misrule of the king, and called a Parliament to which were summoned not only barons, knights, and great ecclesiastics, but also burghers, or citizens, to represent the towns. In this event we find the beginning of the power of the House of Commons.

De Montfort was killed in battle with Henry's son Edward, who, when he came to the throne as Edward I. (1272-1307) proved himself a very able and enlightened sovereign, ruling in conformity with national law and causing the enactment of many salutary measures. Edward I. did much to promote the power of parliament. He frequently called together representatives of the lords, clergy and commons, the principle that their consent is necessary to measures of taxation being firmly established in his reign. The mod-

ern English parliament, the pattern of the legislative bodies of most modern states, may be traced back through the "Model Parliament" of Edward I., and the Councils of Barons during the Norman and early Plantagenet period (Henry II. founded the house of Plantagenet) to the Witanagemot, the great national council of Anglo-Saxon times. Edward I. was accounted the greatest general of his day. He conquered Wales and conferred the title of Prince of Wales on his young son. Since then this title has always been borne by the heir apparent to the English crown. Death put an end to his designs on Scotland, which he had partly subjugated, and his weak son Edward II., trying to carry out his father's plans, led an immense army against the Scots, who, under the famous Robert Bruce, defeated it with terrible slaughter at Bannockburn (1314).

Edward III. (1322-77) entered upon a struggle with France in support of his claim to the throne of that country that endured for over a century, plunging France into misery and inflicting sad burdens on England, for which the empty glory of the extraordinary victories of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt was poor recompense. We have already treated the "Hundred Years' War," as this conflict is called, in the history of France (Note, Vol. IV, page 288). On account of the frequent appeals for money to maintain the expenses of these wars Parliament was able to extort further privileges from the kings. A notable advance in parliamentary power occurred when Richard II. (grandson and successor of Edward III.) was deposed and Henry IV. (father of Henry V.) received the crown from Parliament.

In the reign of Henry V.'s son, Henry VI., broke out the disastrous "Wars of the Roses"—so called because one of the rival parties in the contest over the succession to the throne, that of the House of York, bore the badge of a white rose, and the other, that of the House of Lancaster, a red one. The chief result of these wars was the

destruction of the old nobility and the extension of the royal power.

The struggle was terminated by the death of Richard III. (see Note, Vol. III, page 106) of the House of York, and the defeat of his forces at the Battle of Bosworth Field by the Lancastrians under Henry, Earl of Richmond, who became Henry VII., married the heiress of the House of York, and united the two rival lines into the House of Tudor. Their son was the famous Henry VIII., whose six wives were partly political victims. In Henry's reign the Reformation was begun in England. (See Note, Reformation, Vol. III, page 2). We have already sketched the reigns of his children and successors, Mary, Edward VI. and the great Elizabeth. (Note, Reformation, Vol. III, page 2; Elizabeth, Vol. IV, page 28). The Tudor sovereigns were despotically inclined and contrived to override Parliament. In the reign of Mary, England lost Calais, her last possession in France.

On the death of Elizabeth in 1603, James VI. of Scotland came to the throne of England as James I. (Note, Vol. IV, page 71), founding the house of Stuart. The reign of James I. was inglorious, and his acts, based on the theory that he was king by "divine right," began the conflict between sovereign and Parliament in which his son Charles I. lost his head, and by which the supremacy of Parliament was achieved. Charles I. was determined on absolute rule, and Parliament was equally determined to maintain its precious and slowly won privileges. Charles demanded subsidies. Parliament refused, and proceeded instead to recite its grievances, to assert its own privileges and the rights of all Englishmen. Charles dissolved Parliament, and attempted to extort the money it would not vote. His high-handed but unsuccessful attempt to seize five of the Parliamentary leaders in the House of Commons brought on the inevitable war. In 1642 the Royalists, or Cavaliers, and the Roundheads, as the Parliamen-

tarians were derisively called by the Cavaliers, met in battle at Edgehill. After a period of indecision, the great general Oliver Cromwell came to the front and overthrew the Royalists in a series of desperate battles. Charles I. was sent to the block in 1649. Cromwell became Lord Protector in 1653 and ruled as autocratically as Elizabeth until his death in 1658. He governed with great wisdom, however, and under him England attained prosperity at home and immense prestige abroad. (See Note, Cromwell, Vol. VI, page 25).

After the death of Cromwell and the deposition of his feeble son Richard, who succeeded his father as Lord Protector, the Stuart Restoration took place, Charles II. coming to the throne in 1660. He was a profligate, and under him, reacting from the rigidity of Puritan rule, morals became frightfully corrupt. England also fell away deplorably from the pitch of power abroad to which Cromwell had raised her. Charles II.'s brother, James II., endeavored to reestablish Catholicism. As a result of this attempt and his efforts to reestablish the old Stuart despotism, he was expelled by the revolution of 1688, and the illustrious William of Orange, head of the Dutch Protestants, and his wife Mary, daughter of James II., were called to the throne as joint sovereigns. Under William and Mary the cabinet system of government began to be developed. William's attention was largely centered on foreign affairs and he was the soul of the European coalition against Louis XIV. After his death his policy was continued under Queen Anne, (1702-1714), and the Duke of Marlborough wrecked Louis' armies in a series of great battles, the chief of which was Blenheim. In this reign Gibraltar was captured by the English. "Queen Anne's War," dealt with in Volume VIII, takes its name from this sovereign. In 1707 England and Scotland were united into the Kingdom of Great Britain.

Anne died childless, and on her death the present reign-

ing house of Hanover, which descended from a daughter of James I., came to the throne. George I. and II., the first rulers of this family, were engrossed in the affairs of their German kingdom of Hanover, and the cabinet under its leading member, the prime minister, practically assumed the royal functions. Sir Robert Walpole, one of the ablest of English statesmen, maintained predominance in the country's affairs for over twenty years. William Pitt, "the Great Commoner," was the next commanding figure in English politics. Under his brilliant leadership, England's empire in America and India advanced with great strides.

To George II. succeeded his grandson, the obstinate George III. Endowed with a brain that at last degenerated into lunacy, he determined to take the government of England out of the hands of so superb a genius as Pitt and regulate its affairs himself. The loss of the American colonies was one result of his reactionary policy, which was aimed at the rights of his subjects in England as well as in the colonies. Ireland was united with Great Britain in 1800. The war of 1812 with the United States and the tremendous struggle against Napoleon were events of this reign. Napoleon's great enemy in England was the younger Pitt, who inherited much of his father's splendid genius, and who became the most powerful minister in Europe at the age of twenty-five. The great naval victories of the Nile, St. Vincent, Copenhagen and Trafalgar, and the land victories of Wellington in India, Spain and at Waterloo, belong to this reign. Since the disastrous termination of George III.'s policy toward the American Colonies, the authority of the kings of England has been nominal only, the real sovereignty resting with the prime minister and the cabinet.

An era of reform was set on foot in the reign of George IV. (1820-30), of which Canning was the chief statesman. The Catholics received political emancipation in 1829. In

1832, under William IV., the great Reform Bill was passed, correcting long-standing parliamentary abuses. In 1833 the slaves in the British colonies were purchased from their owners for $100,000,000 and set free.

In 1837 Queen Victoria began her reign, the longest in English history, which so many great names in statesmanship, literature and science have made illustrious. Among the statesmen who swayed the destinies of the empire after her accession were Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell, the Earl of Derby, Lord Palmerston, Gladstone, the Earl of Beaconsfield, and the Marquis of Salisbury. Richard Cobden and John Bright waged a victorious fight for free trade and other great reforms. Sir Rowland Hill established cheap postage. Lord Beaconsfield caused the Queen to assume the title of Empress of India. He also acquired Cyprus for England, and bought the shares of the Suez Canal owned by the Khedive of Egypt, thus giving England control of that great waterway. A series of events placed Egypt in England's hands, tho it is still nominally part of the Turkish Empire. The ruthless Boer war added another big batch of red to the map of the world. Splendid as were his gifts as orator and statesman, Gladstone failed in his attempt to secure "home rule" for Ireland. England was almost constantly at war during Victoria's reign, in China, Afghanistan, the Sudan, Burma, India, and Russia, and with the Zulus, Boers, and Abyssinians; the three great wars being the Crimean (1854-56) (see Note, France, Vol. IV, page 288), the terrible Indian Mutiny (1857-58), and the Second Boer War (1899-1902).

Edward VII. succeeded Victoria in 1901. He has been active in the promotion of international good feeling. After the close of the Russo-Japanese war, England and Japan renewed a treaty that gives them control of far eastern affairs. The British Empire to-day embraces one-fifth of the land surface of the globe, and controls about one-fourth of its inhabitants.

Page 13. The Pilgrim Fathers.

It should be borne in mind that the religious doctrines held by the Pilgrim Fathers were not identical with those of the main body of English Puritans. They were the extremists among the reformers of their time, and differed from the Puritans chiefly in that they would have nothing to do with an organized national church, which it was the aim of the Puritans to purge of everything which they considered to savor of "popery." They were thorough-going democrats in religion and claimed the right to regulate affairs for each congregation. Their determination to separate from the established Church of England won for them the name Separatists. They were also called "Brownists," from Robert Browne, the first advocate of their views. The later Massachusetts Bay colonists however, were Puritans.

Page 17. Nonconformists.

Persons who would not assent or conform to the doctrines and forms of religion as established by law—to the State Church in other words—were called Nonconformists. The term, however, does not include Catholics. The severe repressive measures adopted to force a uniform system of religion in England were of the highest importance in the history of America, for they drove out of England thousands of sturdy, intelligent, clean-living, altho bigoted and uncompromising men, who continued the warfare for religious and political liberty in America, and at last broke altogether their allegiance to the British Crown.

Page 17. The Thirty-nine Articles.

Forty-two articles of religion were drawn up as the doctrines of belief of the Anglican Church in the reign of Edward VI. After the accession of Elizabeth had put an end to the Catholic reaction under Mary, these articles,

somewhat modified and reduced to thirty-nine, were again promulgated. The Thirty-Nine, or XXXIX, as it is often written, Articles, were adopted with some modification by the American Episcopal Church in 1801.

Page 17. Archbishop of Canterbury.

The Archbishop of Canterbury is the chief ecclesiastic in Great Britain, the Archbishop of York ranking next. His title is "Primate of all England," the Archbishop of York being "Primate of England." In rank he comes immediately after members of the royal family, and has precedence over the Lord Chancellor, the chief officer of the crown. He enjoys a salary of $75,000 a year. The first Archbishop of Canterbury was St. Augustine, a Roman monk, who succeeded in converting Ethelbert, King of Kent, to Christianity in 597. Cranmer was the first Protestant Archbishop of Canterbury. He was burned at the stake by the Catholic party in 1556 after the accession of Mary.

Page 19. King James.

The characterization of James I. quoted on this page is extreme (see Note, James I., Vol. IV, page 71). He was certainly, in many ways, an absurd and contemptible person, but it is only fair to state that he possessed many virtues and that as a scholar he ranked high in his day. The description of him by Sully, the great minister of Henry IV. of France, who characterized him as "the wisest fool in Christendom," indicates the curious mixture of strength and imfirmity which marked his intellect. Nor must we forget that the English-speaking world owes to him the greatest monument of its literature, the King James version of the Bible, the translation of which he personally superintended.

Page 28. Leyden.

Leyden, the home of the Pilgrims while in Holland, is renowned in history for its heroic defense against the Spaniards, who besieged it in 1573-74. William the Silent raised the siege by cutting the dikes which protect Holland from the sea, and flooding the whole surrounding country. It is the seat of a famous university, and boasts having been the birthplace of the great painter Rembrandt.

Page 33. Virginia Company.

See Vol. IV., page 71.

Page 37. Nero.

Nero enjoys the distinction of being the most infamous sovereign in history. He was the sixth Roman Emperor and the son of Agrippina, a woman who can be compared only with her son. He murdered his mother, a fate suffered by everybody within his reach who incurred his displeasure. Seneca, the great philosopher, and Seneca's nephew, the famous poet Lucan, were among his victims. He is accused of setting fire to Rome in A. D. 64, a crime which he charged upon the Christians, who were thereupon subjected to a severe persecution. In 68 A. D. when an insurrection had lost him his throne, he killed himself, lamenting that death should put an end to so sublime an intellect as his own.

Page 37. Pontifex Maximus.

The Pontifex Maximus was the chief priest of the ancient Roman religion. This office was always held by the emperor after Rome under Augustus ceased to be a republic. The title of "pontiff" assumed by the Popes of Rome is derived from *pontifex*.

Page 38. Lord Bacon.

Lord Bacon is the name by which the great philosopher is generally known, tho properly he should be called

either by his name, Francis Bacon, or by his title, Lord St. Albans. He had splendid gifts as an orator, statesman, and jurist, but certain weaknesses of character brought him into disrepute. As a scientist, however, he occupies a very high rank. Pope calls him "The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind."

Page 46. Stadtholder—States-general.

In the Netherlands the princes of the house of Orange, beginning with William the Silent in 1581 and ending with William V. in 1802, were called Stadtholders. The legislative body of the Netherlands was known as the States-general.

Page 51. John Robinson.

The pastor of the Pilgrims in Leyden was not able to carry out his plan of taking the less robust members of the congregation to America after the pioneers on the Mayflower had become established. He died in Leyden in 1625. He is regarded as the founder of the Congregational denomination.

Page 55. Basilisk.

The Basilisk was a creation of the ancient imagination. It was supposed to be the king of serpents, its head being adorned with prominences in the form of a crown. Its glance was believed to be fatal and its breath poisonous. It was also called the cockatrice, for it was supposed to originate from the egg of a cock, hatched by a serpent. The cock could withstand its deadly glance and breath and inspire the monster with great fear. Hence travelers were advised to take the precaution of carrying lusty-crowing cocks for protection when venturing near the haunts of the basilisk in the African deserts.

Page 63. Title of English King.

The student may be surprised to see James I. styled "King of Great Britain, *France* and Ireland." The English sovereigns, beginning with Edward III. persisted in wearing the French lilies on the royal arms and in styling themselves "King of France," a title which was not dropped until the reign of George III., who assumed the title of King of Great Britain and Ireland, when Ireland was incorporated with England in 1800. Edward III.'s claim to the French throne and Henry V.'s conquest of France have been dealt with in the note on France, Vol. IV, page 288, and in the introduction to this volume.

Page 63. Compact of the Pilgrims.

The compact given on this page was signed by forty-one members of the company. It will be noticed that several signed "Mr." before their names. At that time "Mr.," like "Esq.," was a title, and indicated that its bearer was a gentleman. It was the abbreviation of "Master," of which our word "Mister" is a variation. Only twelve of the number were able so to sign themselves.

Page 86. Calendar.

New England students will notice that the date, December 11th, of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, as given in the text, conflicts with the anniversary of that event, which is observed on December 22. The confusion arises from the alteration in the English calendar, which took place in 1751. The calendar universally used in Europe until the 16th century, and still used in backward Russia, was the Julian, so called from Julius Cæsar, who in 46 B. C. reduced to order the chaotic system previously prevailing in Rome. His arrangement of leap years, however, added three days too many in every four hundred years, the accumulation of which, between 46 B. C. and 1528 A. D. had thrown the

official year ten days behind the actual, or solar, year. Pope Gregory XIII., moved thereto by the consequent derangement of Easter and other church festivals, readjusted the calendar by dropping ten days from the year 1582. The Catholic countries at once adopted the needed reform, but Protestant countries, abhorring even science when under the seal of "popery" adhered to the old illogical system; and it was not until 1751, when the calendar had fallen behind another day, that the English Parliament made the change by ordaining that September 3rd of that year should be reckoned as September 14th. Hence there is a difference between dates as reckoned in the old style and the new style. It is interesting to note that ignorant and foolish people thought that Parliament had ruthlessly cut eleven days out of their lifetimes when the alteration went into force. The Russian calendar has now fallen thirteen days behind.

Page 122. Holland.

The term *Holland* is properly applied to but one province of the Netherlands, as the present Dutch kingdom is officially designated. The Netherlands were originally occupied by Celtic tribes, who, like their neighbors of France and England, fell under the dominion of Rome. Frankish tribes later overran them and they developed into a part of Charlemagne's empire. (See Note, France, Vol. IV, page 288). After the partition of that great monarch's dominions, part of the country fell to what became the German Empire, and the remainder to the French kingdom. Hence there developed a French Netherlands, now Belgium, and a Germanic Netherlands, to which the name Holland is loosely applied, and whose people we know as Dutch. In the early part of the Middle Ages the country became divided into a number of practically independent states, ruled by dukes, counts, and bishops, among which were Holland, Brabant, Flanders, Gelderland, Zealand, Hainault, Utrecht,

and Liège. In the 14th century the powerful dukes of Burgundy beçame masters of the Netherlands, which had risen to a high pitch of prosperity and culture. In art they were especially advanced, rivaling the Italian states, while they acquired great wealth through commerce and industry. Holding such rich dominions, Charles the Bold of Burgundy bade fair to become as powerful a sovereign as the French and German monarchs; but a rash attack on the Swiss ended his life and ambition and, through the marriage of his heiress with the son of the emperor Maximilian, the Netherlands fell to the Austrian house of Hapsburg. Charles V., Maximilian's grandson, united the Netherlands with his kingdom of Spain, and they consequently fell to his son Philip II. (see Note, Vol. III, page 104). Philip being a fanatical Catholic and the greater part of the Dutch provinces having adopted the doctrines of the Reformation, a clash was inevitable. The idea that Protestantism should have infected a part of his domain filled Philip with abhorrence, and to stamp it out in the Netherlands he exhausted every resource of tyranny. He let loose upon them the inhuman Duke of Alva, who embarked upon a policy which drenched the land with blood, after the Inquisition had consigned the whole people of the Netherlands to death as heretics. Alva boasted that he had put 18,000 people to death, besides those who had fallen in battle against him. He failed, however, to break the Dutch revolt, of which the noble William the Silent, prince of Orange, was the leader; and in 1579 the seven northern provinces formed the Union of Utrecht, declaring their independence of Spain two years later. From these "United Provinces," as they were called, sprang the Dutch Republic and the present kingdom of the Netherlands.

After the assassination of William the Silent in 1584 his son, the great general Maurice of Nassau, continued the war victoriously, and in 1609 the Spaniards practically acknowledged the independence of the United Provinces by

agreeing to a twelve years' truce. It was about this time that the events referred to on pages 122-125 of Vol. V, occurred.

The war was renewed in 1621, and in 1648 the United Provinces, by the Peace of Westphalia, which closed the great Thirty Years' War, were declared sovereign states.

In the latter half of the seventeenth century, the Dutch waged two naval wars with England, in which the fighting was of the most intense stubbornness, victory resting now with the Dutch and now with the English. On one occasion a battle lasted for four days. The great admirals on the Dutch side were Van Tromp and de Ruyter, and on the English side Blake, "the Hammer of the Dutch," and Monk, (Lord Albemarle). To this period belongs the picturesque, but very doubtful, story that Van Tromp, after defeating Blake, sailed up the Channel with a broom at his masthead to signify that he had swept the seas—an unfortunate bit of bravado, if true, for the next year the English defeated him in three engagements, in the last of which he was killed and his fleet destroyed. The honors were about even, however, for if the Dutch were worsted in the first war (1652-54), the advantage remained with them in the second (1665-1667). The treaty of Breda, which closed the second war, gave New Amsterdam (New York) to England.

With the accession of the Dutch prince, the illustrious William of Orange, son-in-law of James II., to the English throne as William III., Holland and England were united against Louis XIV. of France (see Introduction).

After the middle of the 17th century the Netherlands began to decline from the high degree of power to which their tremendous efforts had raised them; and in 1795 the army of the French revolutionary government under Pichegru conquered the country, and it was then erected into the Batavian Republic. As an ally of France, Holland prepared a fleet for the invasion of Ireland in 1797, and the last of those desperate naval encounters between Dutch and

English occurred at Camperdown in consequence. The Dutch fleet was destroyed, and Holland ceased to be a naval power. Then came Napoleon, who first made a kingdom of Holland for his brother Louis, and afterward took it away from him and incorporated the country into the French Empire. The Congress of Vienna, which re-set Europe in 1815 after Napoleon had disjointed it, united Belgium and Holland as the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Belgium, comprising the southern provinces of the Netherlands (the Spanish Netherlands) which had remained in the hands of the Spaniards after the United Provinces had won their independence, had in the meantime passed from Spanish to Austrian rule and been conquered by Napoleon and annexed to his empire. During the wars with Napoleon, England appropriated most of the Dutch colonial possessions.

After the Union, Belgium, whose people differ too greatly from the Dutch for political harmony, broke away from Holland and in 1830 was made into a separate kingdom. The history of Holland has since been one of tranquility and prosperity. Holland is still an important colonial power.

Page 131. Manhattan.

The present ground value of the island of Manhattan, originally purchased for about $24, is placed at $2,500,000,000; and there are places on the island, now the principal borough of the City of New York, where $24 would hardly buy enough land to place one's heel upon.

Page 132. Gorges.

See Vol. IV, page 70 and Note.

Page 132. Sir Edward Coke.

Coke was one of the most distinguished of English jurists. As attorney-general he prosecuted a number of famous state trials, among them those of Sir Walter Raleigh and

of the conspirators implicated in the Gunpowder Plot (see Note, Popham, Vol. IV, page 71). He was particularly stubborn in resisting the attempts of the king to debauch justice, and in one case boldly defied James I. after all the other judges had rendered an unlawful decision in his favor. This cost him the chief-justiceship, to which he had been raised in the hope that he might be corrupted. Later he suffered imprisonment in the Tower for his bold utterances in support of parliamentary rights, of which he was one of the most able and distinguished champions. He was the author of the famous legal treatise known as *Coke on Littleton*.

Page 136. Sir William Alexander.

William Alexander, Earl of Stirling, received in 1621 the munificent grant of Canada and Newfoundland from James I., who seems to have been quite unconscious that his little gift included about one-fifteenth of the land surface of the globe. Alexander renamed Acadia, Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, in honor of his native land.

Page 168. Lord Say and Sele.

William Fiennes, Viscount Say and Sele, was one of the Puritan nobles who embraced the Parliamentary cause in the rebellion against Charles I. He was a close friend of Cromwell, an Independent in politics and religion, and a man of great ability. He would have emigrated to Massachusetts Bay with Lord Brook had the colonials assented to his proposal to establish an hereditary order of nobility among them.

Page 191. Massachusetts.

It must be borne in mind that the settlers who formed the Massachusetts Bay Colony differed in type and in religious doctrine from those of Plymouth. At the time of

their emigration, the religious and political oppression of Charles I. was rapidly driving the Parliamentary party to civil war; but as yet his authority was supreme, and many of the Puritan leaders, despairing of ever winning liberty in England, looked to the New World, where the colonists of Plymouth had stubbornly won a foothold, as a divinely prepared haven of refuge. Oliver Cromwell and his cousin, the noble patriot John Hampden, endeavored to flee to America, but the King most unwisely prevented their sailing. Many men of wealth, education and position, however, threw in their lot with the emigrants, and Massachusetts thus gained a rare quality of settlers. They were Puritans in religion, members of the established Church of England, not Separatists, as were the Plymouth colonists, but they soon became Independents. "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England," was first organized as a trading company; but their aim from the first was to form a religious and political community, and, in 1629, by transferring their seat of government from England to America, they established a colonial government.

Page 191. Dorchester.

The history of the founding of the town of Dorchester is of interest and importance as an illustration of the particular form of local self-government which developed in New England. Dorchester was actually organized as a civil and religious community in Plymouth, England, before the colonists embarked for America (March, 1630). On their arrival, they constituted a practically independent unit, under the general jurisdiction of the Massachusetts Bay chartered company. Naturally enough, the Colony sought to extend the authority of its central government. This gave rise to discontent, which in 1635 caused the town to betake itself in a body to Connecticut, where, without reorganization, it became the town of Windsor. Throughout New England it was the town where most of the govern-

mental functions were discharged, in contrast to the system prevailing in Virginia and the South generally, where the Colony as a whole was the source of government, certain functions being delegated to the counties. In the middle colonies, a compromise was formed between these two sharply opposed systems. The New England towns elected the lower houses, in which they were equally represented. To this arrangement has been traced the germ of the United States Senate.

Page 192. Charter House.

In England a Carthusian monastery was called a Charterhouse, the word being a corruption of the French *Chartreuse*. The most famous of these monasteries was the one located in London, whose property, after the monasteries were suppressed by Henry VIII., was purchased in 1611 by the very wealthy Sir Thomas Sutton, who endowed the Charterhouse as a hospital for old men and a school for poor boys. It is now one of the great English public schools, and many distinguished men have been educated there.

Page 203. Monarchy.

The student must not allow himself to be misled by the mere terms monarchy and republic. A monarchy is not necessarily bad, nor a republic necessarily good. Indeed, Great Britain to-day, tho in form monarchic, is essentially democratic; while the government of France, in name republican, is far less liberal than that of England. Many of the South and Central American republics are really dictatorships. The boys who are growing up into voting citizens must not assume that liberty is automatically provided for by a republican form of government. A republic is based on the intelligent cooperation of all its citizens; and unless they are constantly alert to guard their privileges, grave abuses and unlawful usurpations in government will arise.

Page 204. Anabaptists.

The terms Anabaptist and Baptist must not be confused. Anabaptism means a second baptism; and that Protestant sect which, considering infant baptism as of no efficacy, baptised adult members again on their becoming members, was called Anabaptists. They were of Swiss origin. Their name has a sinister association with the city of Münster, in Germany, of which they gained possession and, establishing a theocracy, perpetuated various abominations in the name of religion. The capture of the city by the bishop of Münster in 1535 wiped out the most shameful blot on the Reformation. The sect, however, wholly purged itself of its mad fanaticism; and the reformed branch of it, known as Mennonites, so called from their founder, Menno Simons, is widespread and influential to-day. The Baptists, who hold similar views regarding baptism, are of English origin, being a branch of the Puritans who insisted on the immersion of adults. John Bunyan, the author of the immortal "Pilgrim's Progress," was a pastor of this sect. John Milton was also associated with it, though not an actual member of the church. Roger Williams was the founder of this denomination in America, which has acquired great power and influence.

Page 209. Mrs. Hutchinson.

Anne Hutchinson was a very clever Englishwoman, who acquired a large following in America by her vigorous advocacy of doctrines which, to the Massachusetts Puritans, were heretical. Among her supporters were some important men in the colony, including John Cotton and the governor, Henry (Sir Harry) Vane. As the church in Massachusetts was the state, the religious controversy that ensued at once became a political dissension, which, in accordance with the general intolerance of the age, could be healed only by purging the community of the disturbing elements.

Vane was removed from the governorship and went to England, where he entered upon that distinguished career of activity in support of liberty which eventually cost him his head. Anne Hutchinson was the ancestor of Thomas Hutchinson, the last royal governor of Massachusetts.

Page 210. Harvard University.

Many of the Massachusetts Bay colonists having been students at Cambridge University in England, which was more liberally inclined than Oxford, the General Court of the Colony in 1636 voted £400 to establish a new Cambridge College in America. John Harvard, an English clergyman, died two years later and left £400 and his library to the new institution. This sum at that time was a magnificent legacy. The name of the college was then changed to Harvard in memory of its benefactor.

Page 211. Phoenix.

The phœnix, or phenix, belongs to Egyptian mythology, which represented it as a bird which at long intervals came out of Arabia to the Temple of the Sun at Heliopolis in Egypt, where it burned itself, and then a new bird sprang from its ashes. There are a number of variations of the fable which were meant to symbolize the daily reappearance of the sun from darkness and, hence, the resurrection.

Page 254. Belshazzar.

See Daniel V.

Page 268. Bronck.

One of the boroughs of New York City bears the name of the Bronx, which is a variation of Bronck, the name of an early Dutch settler in that part of the city.

Page 290. Avalon.

Avalon is the name of a peninsula in Newfoundland on which the capital, St. John's, is situated. In the legends

of the Round Table, Avalon is an ocean island where King Arthur resided and was buried. It was also the dwelling place of Oberon and Morgaine la Fée. This isle of faerie is described in Tennyson's "Idylls of the King."

Page 297. St. Ignatius.

There are three saints of this name, one of whom, St. Ignatius of Antioch, is included among the "Apostolic Fathers," as the companions of the apostles are called. The St. Ignatius of modern history is the famous Spaniard, Ignatius Loyola (Inigo de Recalde), the founder of the Jesuit Order (see Note, Vol. III, page 18). His rather dissolute early career as a soldier, in which, however, he displayed great bravery, was terminated by a severe wound received during the siege of Pamplona by the French. He takes his name from the Castle of Loyola, in which he was born and where, during his long and tedious convalescence, he became imbued with that devoted religious fervor whence developed the mighty Jesuit Order, which he founded in 1534, and of which he became the first general. He was made a saint (canonized) in 1622.

Page 203. St. Gregory.

There are several saints of this name, two of whom, Gregory I. and Gregory VII., were popes. Gregory I., ("the Great,") was pope from 590 to 604. He was born of a rich and distinguished family, and devoted his wealth to the establishment of monasteries. His services to the Church were of the highest order: under him the papacy took on the imperial form it maintained throughout the Middle Ages. He is affectionately remembered in English history for having brought about the conversion to Christianity of the heathen Anglo-Saxons. The story is told that when a monk he saw some fair-haired Anglo-Saxon children in the slave market in Rome and, struck by their beauty, inquired

their nationality. On being told that they were Angles he replied that they should be not *Angles* but *Angels*, and that they would be angels if they were Christians. He then formed the resolve of making a missionary journey to Britain, and set out on his enterprise; but so great was his popularity in Rome that the pope was forced to recall him. After Gregory's own elevation to the papal throne, he dispatched Augustine and a band of monks to carry out his cherished plan of christianizing Britain, which was successfully executed. (See Note, Archbishop of Canterbury, page 17). The Gregorian Chant, a form of religious music lately reestablished in the Catholic Church, was introduced by him.

One of the ablest of the popes was Hildebrand, who assumed the title of Gregory VII. He was a man of very humble origin. He devoted his life to advancing the power of the papacy and to rendering it supreme over temporal sovereigns. Henry IV., Emperor of Germany, having been rash enough to defy him, Gregory excommunicated the emperor, who was at once deserted by his subjects; for in those days an excommunicant was shunned by the faithful as if he were smitten with leprosy. Henry was forced to go to Canossa in Italy, where Gregory was then staying, and barefooted, clad as a begger, to stand for three days in mid-winter, in front of the castle gate before he was admitted to receive absolution. Henry had his revenge, however, for seven years later (1084) he drove Gregory out of Rome and into exile, in which he died in 1085.

Page 355. William Laud.

Charles I. had two principal agents in the execution of his plans for the establishment of the royal prerogative in state and church affairs, both of whom fell victims to the indignation they inspired in those who were fighting for popular rights. His agent in state tyranny was Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who devoted consummate abilities to his odious task. His agent in religious oppres-

sion was the conscientious, but narrow and bigoted Laud. A clothier's son, Laud entered the church after graduating at Oxford and, attracting attention by his uncompromising antipathy to the puritanical movement in the English church, received ecclesiastical advancement, reaching at last the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1641 the Parliament brought Strafford to the block, and in 1645 Laud's head also rolled on Tower Hill. As Charles I.'s chief minister, he contributed largely to that popular exasperation which demanded that Charles himself should go the way of his two advisers in 1649.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume V.

Who was John Robinson? *Page* 4.

What were the Puritans? *Page* 16.

Why did the Pilgrims emigrate to Holland? *Page* 20.

Did the Puritans and Pilgrims differ in belief? *Note to page* 13.

What was Lord Bacon's idea of the Puritans? *Page* 39.

How were the Pilgrims enabled to emigrate to America? *Page* 47.

What were the names of the ships in which they set out, and what happened to one of them? *Page* 60.

State the chief features of the Compact drawn up by the Pilgrims before landing. *Page* 63.

Tell something about the acts of the Pilgrims before landing at Plymouth. *Pages* 65-87.

What were the chief provisions of the treaty with the Indians by the Pilgrims? *Page* 99.

What effect did the hardships have on the Pilgrims during their first winter? *Page* 100.

Mention some of the religious views of the Pilgrims. *Page* 101.

Tell something about the explorations of Adrien Block. *Pages* 123-124.

Who founded Manhattan, and when? *Page* 123.

Who were the Walloons? *Page* 129.

For how much was the Island of Manhattan purchased? *Page* 131.

Who were principally concerned in the settlement of Maine and New Hampshire? *Pages* 132-135.

How did the Dutch Commissioners describe Plymouth in 1617? *Page* 165.

Give some account of the founding of Massachusetts Bay Colony. *Pages* 189-191 *and note to page* 191.

Give an account of the early life of Roger Williams. *Page* 192.

When and where was voting by ballot first introduced into America? *Page* 199.

How did Roger Williams incur the enmity of the Massachusetts Colonists? *Page* 201.

What reasons were given for his expulsion? *Page* 204.

What resulted from this intolerance on the part of the Massachusetts Puritans? *Page* 209.

When and by whom was Harvard College founded? *Page* 210 *and note.*

What brought on the war with the Pequod Indians? *Page* 211.

What great service did Roger Williams tender the colony from which he had been expelled? *Page* 228.

What was the result of the Pequod war? *Pages* 258-261.

When and by whom was New Haven founded? *Pages* 261-262.

On what did the New Haven Colonists base their government? *Page* 263.

Did the Dutch favor the settlement of the English in the Connecticut Valley? *Page* 267.

What was the Hartford Convention? *Page* 269.
When and by whom was Maryland founded?
Pages 290-293.
Why was the colony called Maryland? *Page* 295.
Of what religion were its first settlers? *Page* 297.
Describe the landing of Calvert's company.
Pages 305-306.
What prevented Charles I. from proceeding harshly against the New England Colonies? *Page* 357.
What effect did the success of the Puritans in England have on emigration to America? *Page* 358.
What brought about the first federation of the New England Colonies? *Page* 359.

The Introductory Sketch of English History and the Note on this History of Holland, page 122, might be used as the basis of brief essays on the histories of those countries. The "Voyage of the Mayflower" is another good topic. Chapters XI. and XIII. would supply material for an account of the life of Roger Williams.

The frequent Notes in this and previous volumes on religious topics, together with the sections of the text to which they refer, provide the basis for a discussion of the Influence of Religion upon the Early History of the American Colonies.

NOTES FOR THE THIRD COURSE

Volume VI

Page 20. Sir George Calvert.

George Calvert was the first Baron Baltimore, a title conferred upon him by James I. in 1625. He died before the charter for Maryland, promised him by Charles I., was issued; but his son Cecil, the second Lord Baltimore, to whom the charter rights were re-issued, sent his brother

Leonard to effect a settlement. Leonard was the first governor of Maryland. The first four barons were Catholics, but the fifth, Charles, was a Protestant. With Frederick, the sixth baron, the family became extinct. They were all prominently concerned in the history of the Colony of Maryland, toward which they maintained a very liberal attitude. The family was English, but the title belonged to the Irish peerage. It need hardly be mentioned that the name of the city of Baltimore perpetuates the family title.

Page 25. Oliver Cromwell.

The greatest of England's rulers, and one of the great generals and statesmen of history, lived as an obscure country squire until forty years of age. Cromwell had served in Parliament before the beginning of the Civil War, but was not conspicuous. The chief attention he seems to have attracted was due to his uncouth earnestness and untidy appearance. One courier, hearing him speak, was curious to learn the identity of "that sloven." It is said that he and his illustrious cousin, John Hampden, during the dark days when the cause of religious and political freedom seemed hopeless in England, had actually embarked for America, but were arrested and prevented from sailing by a royal order.

When hostilities broke out between the forces of the king and parliament, Cromwell was made a captain in the parliamentary army, and proceeded shortly afterward to organize an extraordinary body of cavalry, which became known as Cromwell's Ironsides, to cope with the splendid royalist cavalry commanded by King Charles' nephew, the brilliant Prince Rupert. Cromwell's military genius was at once recognized and he was rapidly advanced in rank, becoming lieutenant-general in 1645. Altho he was over forty years of age when he took the sword he never lost a battle and his victories were usually crushing. The defeated king having fallen into the hands of parliament, Cromwell

was chiefly responsible for his execution in 1649. This act, and the ruthlessness which marked his conquest of Ireland, justifiable as that conquest may have been as a military necessity, are the chief blots upon his career. From Ireland he hurried to Scotland, which had declared for Charles II., as commander-in-chief, and gained the signal victory of Dunbar. A year later to a day, in 1651, he came up with Charles II. at Worcester, where he fought his last battle, utterly destroying the royalist forces. This victory made him all-powerful in England, and the army made him Lord Protector in 1654. Two years afterward he refused the proffered title of King. Parliament proving intractable, he suppressed it, and took the government into his own hands. Under his stern rule, however, England prospered. Abroad, his vigorous policy was successful and his favor was courted by foreign potentates. It is recorded that the former slovenly member of Parliament, when he had become the most powerful sovereign of his day, appeared "of a comely presence and a great and majestic deportment." He died in 1658, on the anniversary of two of his greatest victories, Dunbar and Worcester.

For a long time it was the fashion of historians, depending upon the calumnies of royalist writers, to picture Cromwell as a monster of cruelty and a master of hypocrisy. But the researches of Carlyle, Guizot, and Macaulay have swept these falsehoods into the waste-bin of historical mythology. Cromwell's religion went deep to the heart of the man; and only with great reluctance did he yield to the grim business of the sword. He was religious without fanaticism and severe without tyranny.

It is well known that the use a man makes of absolute power is the supreme test of his character. "Tried by this test," says a great authority, "Cromwell bears favorable comparison with any of the greatest names in history. Elevated into supremacy, regal save only in name, he still preserved the plain simplicity of his former life. Armed

with more than kingly power, he limited himself within the bounds of necessity. Personally he cared little for outward show of royalty, but he stinted no pomp or ceremony so far as it seemed to involve the nation's dignity. Too great to be jealous or vindictive for himself, he was swift and stern in crushing the enemies of public tranquility. He was truly a terror to evil-doers, a praise to them that did well. He fostered learning, tho himself not learned, and 'If there was a man in England who excelled in any faculty or science, the Protector would find him out, and reward him according to his merit.' The head of a triumphant cause, he was so little of a fanatic that he tolerated all sects, so long as they meddled not to disturb the state. His large and healthy spirit was bound by no party sympathies, but yearned toward all good men of whatever name. At an era when toleration was looked upon by many as foolish in politics and criminal in religion, he stood out in glorious prominence as the earnest advocate of the rights of conscience, and proclaimed all men answerable to God alone for their faith.''

Cromwell carried in his heart the loftiest ideal of the statesman—the hope to make Christianity the working principle in the government of nations.

Page 45. Queen of Sweden.

The Queen of Sweden referred to on this page was the extraordinary Christina, daughter of the great Gustavus Adolphus, on whose death, in 1632, she was proclaimed queen, at the age of six. She early gave evidence of exceptional talents and her education was that of a man, the ordinary feminine accomplishments being neglected. She refused to marry and, either because she was tired of ruling, wanted to create a great sensation, or was really a magnanimous philosopher, she, while still young and energetic, turned over the Swedish crown, then one of the most splendid in the world, to her cousin, Charles X. Thereafter she lived in

great state, principally in France and Rome, in the midst of the court of men of talent she gathered about her. She personally devoted much time to scientific work; but tho her mind was of a rare order, she was led astray by astrological delusions. She was an extravagant patron of art and letters. She became a Catholic after renouncing the Swedish throne, which in 1660, she unsuccessfully tried to recover after the death of Charles X.

Page 45. Sweden.

Sweden appears for a brief moment as a colonizing power in America. Tho she soon lost her small colony, large numbers of Swedes, and other nearly related Scandinavians, the Norwegians and Danes, have continued to come to this country as immigrants, introducing a particularly desirable strain into the mixed blood of the American race. Denmark, Sweden and Norway were, in 1397, united as one kingdom by the union of Kalmar. Under Gustavus Vasa, who was made king, Sweden became independent in 1523. The grandson of Gustavus Vasa was the illustrious Gustavus Adolphus, who wrested large territories from Russia, and, placing himself at the head of the Protestants of Germany, who were being worsted by the Catholics of the Empire, invaded Germany in 1630. (See Note, Reformation, page 2, Vol. III). He gained notable victories against the great Imperialist generals Tilly and Wallenstein; but fell at Lutzen, where his forces were victorious, in 1632. Axel Oxenstierna, the great minister of Gustavus, administered the affairs of the kingdom during the absence of the king, and the minority of his brilliant but erratic daughter, Christina.

It was Gustavus who planned the Swedish colony in America; and had that great monarch lived it would probably have been longer-lived. Sweden was then one of the great powers of the world, and the amazing military ex-

ploits of Charles XII. brought her great prestige and power, tho his audacious invasion of Russia, then ruled by the astute Peter the Great, ruined him, and inflicted disaster upon his country. Sweden then declined rapidly, lost its possessions in Russia and Germany, and in 1809 was compelled to cede Finland to Russia. Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's marshals, who had risen from the ranks, was elected crown-prince in 1810, and ascended the throne as Charles XIV. in 1818, founding the present reigning house. He took Norway from Denmark and united it with Sweden in 1814, a union which was dissolved in 1905.

Page 39. Peter Minuit.

It was Governor Minuit who purchased Manhattan Island from the Indians (Vol. V, page 131). He fell into disfavor with the Dutch West India Company—New Netherland, it must be remembered, was the domain of a chartered trading company, and not a national colony—which recalled him. Failing to regain favor in Holland, he induced the Swedish government to place him at the head of a colonizing expedition to America, which resulted in the founding of the short-lived Swedish colony on the Delaware and the founding of Fort Christiania near the site of the present City of Wilmington. (See page 45).

Page 53. Puritans.

Speaking of the Puritans of England, whose attitude toward life was as grimly uncompromising as that of the Puritans of America, Lord Macaulay says that they suppressed bear-baiting, a cruel but very popular form of amusement in those days, "not so much because it gave pain to the bear, as because it gave pleasure to the spectators." In this vicious gibe there is no small amount of truth. Many harmless amusements withered under the austere frown of the Puritans after they had obtained power

to regulate public conduct. In America, Puritanism, outgrowing its early fanaticism, still exercises a tonic influence upon our public morals and social institutions.

Page 77. Robinson Crusoe.

Daniel Defoe, the celebrated English novelist and political writer, is said to have founded his ever-popular story of Robinson Crusoe on the adventures of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotch buccaneer, who spent four solitary years on the island of Juan Fernandez in the Pacific ocean. Selkirk is the subject of Cowper's well-known poem beginning "I am monarch of all I survey," the first stanza of which heads Chapter VI.

Page 98. Edward Winslow.

Winslow was governor of Plymouth Colony in 1633, 1636 and 1644. In 1635, while on an official visit to England, he was imprisoned for seventeen weeks, on information given by a spiteful brother colonist, charged with having performed marriages, which in those days was a serious crime for a person out of holy orders. In 1665 Cromwell sent him as commissioner on an expedition to the West Indies, in the course of which he died.

Page 117. Cross of St. George.

The flag of England proper is a red cross on a white field, the so-called Cross of St. George. The flag of Scotland is a white diagonal cross (or saltire) on a blue field, called the Cross of St. Andrew. Ireland's flag is the Cross of St. Patrick, a red saltire on a white field. The three combined form that somewhat broken device of bars and triangles called the "Union Jack" of Great Britain and Ireland.

St. George became the patron saint of England in the reign of Edward III. English soldiers adopted the red cross of St. George as their own badge, and went into bat-

tle shouting "Saint George" as their war-cry. This cross gradually became the national flag. Being the emblem of a Catholic saint, it aroused the ire of John Endicott, who cut it out of the flag. The Cross of Saint George is now the distinguishing ensign of British war vessels, which fly it with the union jack in the canton. The words *Jacket* and *jack* (in union jack) are both derived from the French *Jacque*, as was called the white jacket bearing the Cross of St. George which the Crusaders wore over their armor.

Page 120. Quakers.

See Vol. VII, chapter II. The "Society of Friends" are not very numerous now, but they have exercised a potent influence for good in the example they have set of simplicity, gentleness and goodness, as well as in their hostile attitude toward slavery and war. In their consistent antipathy to war, or military service of any kind, the Friends are fortunately not so far in advance of their age to-day as they have been in the past. They refuse to take an oath, thus giving a wholesome lesson to society in the sacredness of one's word. They address each other in the second person singular, a very useful form that, unfortunately for the language, has been abandoned in favor of the pompous plural "you."

Page 145. Treaty of Breda.

The Treaty of Breda, between England and Holland, France and Denmark, gave New York and New Jersey to England, Acadia to France, and Surinam (Dutch Guiana) to Holland.

Page 146. Binnenhof—St. Stephen.

The Binnenhof is one of the government buildings at The Hague, the capital of the Netherlands. It is an ancient and historic building.

The chapel of St. Stephen was formerly the meeting place of the British Parliament. This site is now marked by St. Stephen's Hall, an octagonal central chamber in the vast and costly mass of buildings which form the new Houses of Parliament in Westminster, (London).

Page 149. Lord De la Warr.

See Vol. IV, page 244.

Page 151. Jersey.

Jersey, which gives its name to the state of New Jersey, is the largest of the Channel Islands, which include also Guernsey, Alderney and Sark. Three of these islands are noted for the fine breeds of cattle which bear their names. The group once belonged to the duchy of Normandy, and is now the only part of it which remains to the British crown. As Normandy conquered England, the islanders facetiously assert that England belongs to the Channel Islands, and not the Channel Islands to England. They are French in language and customs, and largely independent, tho officially part of the English county of Hampshire. The Civil War divided the Channel Islands, Jersey remaining royalist, and Guernsey standing out for Parliament. The Romans called Jersey Cæsarea.

Page 155. Royal Society.

"The Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge," is the chief English scientific society. The younger John Winthrop, son of the John Winthrop who was one of the founders of Boston and repeatedly governor of Massachusetts, was one of the founders of the Royal Society. The initials F. R. S. (Fellow of the Royal Society), are a coveted distinction in the world of science.

Page 158. Clarendon.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, was the great historian of the Civil War between the royalists and parliamentarians. Tho born of a middle-class family, he was the father-in-law of James II. and grandfather of Queens Mary II. and Anne. After the restoration of the Stuarts, he became very powerful as Charles II.'s chief minister, but incurring royal displeasure, he was exiled. He was one of the original proprietors of the Carolina grant of 1663.

Page 161. Locke.

The fantastic constitution for Carolina, described on this and preceding pages, was the work of the famous English philosopher John Locke, whose writings have exercised a profound influence on modern thought. His greatest work is the *Essay Concerning Humane Understanding* (now more generally known as the *Essay on the Human Understanding*). His "Essay on Government" forms the basis of the first part of the Declaration of Independence. (See Note, Vol. IX, page 135).

Page 161. Shaftesbury.

Anthony Ashley Cooper, the first earl of Shaftesbury, was a distinguished English statesman and the author of the Habeas Corpus Act, which still secures British subjects and American citizens the right of speedy judicial hearing, and which was an effective shield against arbitrary imprisonment at the king's pleasure in the days in which it was passed. There is an amusing, and apparently authentic, story told of its passage through the House of Lords. A very stout peer having voted for the bill, one of the tellers jocosely called out *ten*. His colleague, a sleepy and inattentive individual, marked down ten, thus giving the bill the nine extra votes needed to carry it. Both sides noticed the discrepancy, and Lord Shaftesbury, seeing that the oppon-

ents of the bill were preparing for a recount, jumped to his feet, and for an hour poured out a fluent discourse on the first topic that came into his head. After he sat down it was found impossible to verify the count, so many peers having entered or left the house in the meantime. Thus the precious piece of legislation was saved. Shaftesbury's name is embalmed forever in the word *cabal*. This word was formerly an innocent term, meaning a secret cabinet, but it has borne an evil significance ever since Charles II.'s famous ministry, the initials of the names of whose members, through a singular coincidence, spelt Cabal. They were *C*lifford, *A*shley, *B*uckingham, *A*rlington, and *L*auderdale. Shaftesbury was then Lord Ashley.

Page 177. Regicide.

A regicide is one who kills a king. Specifically, in English history, it is applied to those who sat in judgment on Charles I., or were instrumental in causing his death, and especially to the thirty-seven judges who voted for his execution. After the Restoration a general pardon was proclaimed, from which twenty persons were excepted. Thirteen regicides were executed. Others were imprisoned and their estates forfeited. Even the dead leaders of the Commonwealth did not escape shameful indignity, for their bodies were exhumed, hanged in chains on the gallows at Tyburn and burned. This despicable and impotent vengence robbed Westminster Abbey of Cromwell and Blake, two of its most illustrious dead.

Page 181. Halcyon Days.

In ancient times, the kingfisher was called the Halcyon Bird, and it was fabled that during the seven days preceding and the seven days following the shortest day in the year the Halcyon Birds laid their eggs in floating nests and charmed the winds and seas into calm. Halcyon days, accordingly, came to mean a period of tranquility.

Page 191. Don Quixote.

"Don Quixote," by the great Spanish author Cervantes, is perhaps the most celebrated romance ever written. Tho three hundred years old, its popularity is unabated. Don Quixote is a crack-brained knight who, unbalanced by constant reading of tales of chivalry, sets forth with his servant Sancho Panza in search of adventure, of which he finds plenty, for his disordered imagination transforms commonplace objects into the knights, giants, castles and beautiful women of his favorite romances. Of all the highly amusing incidents with which the book abounds, the best known is Don Quixote's tilt against the windmill. He takes the mill to be a menacing giant, and putting spurs to Rosinante, a wretched old nag in which he sees a splendid, high-spirited charger, he lowers his lance and charges. Rosinante and his rider get most direfully mixed up with the whirling sails of the windmill. The book has enriched our language with the word "Quixotic."

Page 204. Sir Henry Vane.

Vane was not a regicide. On the contrary, he opposed the king's execution and refused a proposed oath approving that act. He was an active opponent of Cromwell's arbitrary government, and certain writings against the Lord Protector caused the latter to imprison him. Cromwell's death released him, and being elected to Parliament, he headed the republican party. Charles II. considered him "too dangerous a man to live if he could honestly be put out of the way," and he was, most dishonestly, beheaded on Tower Hill in 1662. The historian Sir James Mackintosh ranks Vane as one of the most profound minds that ever existed. A religious sect, the Vanists, takes its name from him.

Page 251. Commissioners.

Charles II. had been rendered very suspicious of New England, not only on account of the Confederation, which had been represented to him as a move toward the rejection of royal authority, but also because there had been delay in proclaiming him king, and the regicides had not been given up to his officers. In 1664 four royal commissioners arrived in Boston with two war-ships and 400 soldiers, for the purpose of "disposing the people to an entire submission and obedience to the king's government," and to learn whether it would be advisable to appoint a royal governor for Massachusetts. The ships, with reinforcements from Connecticut, proceeded to New Amsterdam and captured it. The commissioners got little satisfaction from Massachusetts, which asserted its charter rights to self-government.

Connecticut was not so refractory as Massachusetts. The commissioners were well received in that colony, to which New Haven was annexed and a liberal charter granted. Rhode Island received a charter making it a separate colony as a mark of royal favor. The Confederation gave way under these changes and became of little importance as a political body, except during the times of mutual danger while King Philip's war was raging. The revocation of the Massachusetts charter in 1684 put an end to the Confederation.

Page 260. Goffe.

The incident narrated on this page forms the theme of Hawthorne's "The Gray Champion," in his "Twice-Told Tales." The student will remember that both Goffe and Whalley had been generals in the victorious Parliamentary armies. Whalley was a cousin of Oliver Cromwell, and was the king's custodian when Charles I. fell into the hands of the army. He was wounded at the battle of Dunbar and served at Worcester. Goffe was Whalley's son-in-law. At

Dunbar he commanded Cromwell's old regiment of "Ironsides," and also won distinction at Worcester. When Cromwell divided the country into ten military districts, he was appointed major-general with command of three counties. He was also one of those who offered the crown to Cromwell, by whom he was elevated to his new House of Lords. Colonel Dixwell, the third regicide who escaped to America, was much less prominent in England than the two others.

Page 279. King Philip.

King Philip's Indian name was Metacomet. After he was shot, his body was quartered and his head sent to Plymouth, where the good folk kept it as an ornament to their gibbet for a long time. It was estimated that King Philip's war cost the colonists fully $1,000,000, that 600 lives were lost and thirteen towns destroyed. Two important Indian tribes, however, were nearly wiped out.

Page 293. Navigation Acts.

The shortsighted Navigation Acts and the trade policy in general as adopted by England toward the American Colonies were the principal causes of the Revolution. These Navigation laws were of very early origin, but it was not until the Commonwealth that a definite policy designed to restrict English and Colonial trade to English-built vessels was resolutely entered upon. The first of these measures was aimed at the Dutch, who had built up a very extensive colonial and carrying trade. The Dutch went to war over it, but the policy was successful and Holland rapidly declined in maritime importance. The famous Navigation Act of 1651 set on foot the long series of commerce-regulating measures which kept up a continual irritation in the Colonies and culminated in open rupture. This act forbade the importation of goods from Asia, Africa, or America into England or the Colonies except in vessels English-built and

manned. In 1660 the act was made more stringent and forbade the exportation from the Colonies of certain articles to any country but England. In 1663 importation into the Colonies was so regulated by duties as practically to prevent any goods being received that had not originated in or passed through England. A further exasperating act was that which in 1673 meddled with the thriving trade which had grown up among the Colonies themselves with the purpose of preventing the Colonies from selling to one another anything that might be purchased in England. In 1731 began a series of acts designed to repress Colonial industry, on the prevailing assumption that the Colonies existed for the benefit of the mother-country, and should be commercially exploited in her interests.

The English Navigation Acts, however, were essentially the same as those of other countries at the time, and the Colonies as soon as they won their independence assumed a similarly hostile attitude toward foreign shipping. Indeed, we still rigidly exclude all foreign vessels from our coasting trade. Moreover, the term "English-built" in all these navigation laws included colonial-built vessels, and American shipping interests were greatly promoted thereby. At the outbreak of the Revolutionary War there were registered 2,311 vessels of American build as against 3,908 of English. England abolished the last of her navigation restrictions in 1854, and this abolition does not seem to have injured her shipping, for of the world's total tonnage of 36,000,000 tons, 17,000,000 is British. Our 5,441,000 tons, all but 944,000 tons of which is engaged in the coasting trade, gives us second place among maritime nations.

Page 303. Nathaniel Bacon.

Bacon's great-grandfather was a cousin of the illustrious Lord Bacon, the great philosopher (see Note, Vol. V, page 38).

Page 375. Tyburn Hill.

All traces of Tyburn Hill have been long obliterated. Its site was within the limits of the present Hyde Park in London, on the banks of the Tyburn, a little stream which has also disappeared. Until 1783 it was the principal place of public execution in London, and reference is constantly made to it in English history. Its gallows was a permanent structure; and in the days when trifling offenses, such as cutting down a tree or stealing food, were visited with capital punishment, it seldom lacked its ghastly ornaments.

Special Readings.

Advanced students will find the following books not only very interesting and profitable as literary studies, but also of great value as a means of acquiring a more ample acquaintance with the period embraced by the Third Course—Thackerary, "Henry Esmond;" Mary Johnston, "To Have and to Hold;" Hawthorne, "Scarlet Letter;" Longfellow, "Courtship of Miles Standish;" Whittier, "Mabel Martin;" Mary E. Wilkins, "Giles Corey."

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume VI.

What was the purpose of the ducking-stool? *Page* 3.

Who was William Claybourne? *Page* 21.

Give an account of his conflict with the Maryland authorities over Kent Island. *Pages* 21, 27, 123.

Give a description of Sir William Berkeley. *Page* 22.

Describe Oliver Cromwell *Page* 25 *and note.*

Narrate the principal events of the New Netherlands under Governor Kieft. *Pages* 39-44.

Give an account of the governorship of Peter Stuyvesant. *Pages* 44-51; 113-117; 144.

Who planned the Swedish Colony on the Delaware, and what was its history? *Pages* 45 *and note;* 46-48.

What was the nature of the New England Confederacy of 1644? *Page* 51.

When and where was money first coined in North America? *Page* 52.

With what political parties in England did the New Englanders and Virginians sympathize? *Pages* 53, 123.

Describe a typical Massachusetts Puritan; mention some of the things he considered worthy judicial punishment. *Page* 53.

Narrate the circumstances attending the early settlement of Carolina. *Pages* 56-58.

What effect did the Stuart Restoration have on the American Colonies? *Pages* 113, 123.

Describe the seizure of New Amsterdam by the English in 1664. *Pages* 113-117.

What justification is there for the intolerance of the Puritans? *Pages* 119, 120.

Describe the treatment of the Quakers by the Puritans in Boston. *Pages* 120-122.

Why was Virginia called the "Old Dominion?" *Page* 124.

When was New York recaptured by the Dutch, and when did it finally pass into the hands of the English? *Pages* 146, 149.

Describe the founding of New Jersey. *Pages* 149-155.

Describe the condition of Connecticut at the time of its union with New Haven. *Page* 155.

Mention some of the strange provisions of the first Carolina Constitution. *Pages* 159-161.

Why did the people of Boston refuse food and shelter to William Goffe? *Page* 177 *and note.*

Give a brief account of the three regicides who escaped to America. *Page* 201 *and note page* 200.

Tell something about Sir Henry Vane. *Pages* 202, 204, *and note.*

Who was instrumental in obtaining a charter from Charles II. for Connecticut? *Page* 244.

What was the distinguishing characteristic of Rhode Island in early Colonial days? *Page* 247.

Why did the people of New Jersey oppose the payment of quit-rents in 1670? *Page* 249.

Mention the principal features of the remonstrance sent by Massachusetts to Charles II. in 1664. *Page* 242.

Why was Massachusetts' defiance of royal authority not punished? *Page* 256.

What population had New England in 1675? *Page* 257.

Who is supposed to have headed the panic-stricken townspeople of Hadley, Mass., against the Indians? *Page* 260.

What was the cause of King Philip's war? *Page* 262.

Who was the principal Indian fighter among the Colonials? *Page* 266.

Where was King Philip most disastrously defeated? *Page* 273.

Describe the death of King Philip. *Page* 278.

What was the result of the war? *Page* 279 *and note.*

Describe the political condition of Virginia under Governor Berkeley. *Pages* 283-286.

Mention some distinguished Virginians of Royalist stock. *Page* 286.

What were the special grievances of Virginia against Charles II.? *Page* 243.

What was the immediate cause of Bacon's Rebellion? *Pages* 304, 305.

Describe the battle of Bloody Run. *Pages* 311, 312.

What did Bacon do when Berkeley declared him a rebel? *Pages* 342, 343.

Describe the destruction of Jamestown. *Pages* 363-365.

What was the fate of Bacon's army after his death? *Pages* 369, 373-376.

"Bacon's Rebellion" and "King Philip's War" are two good subjects for essays in connection with Volume VI. The Note on Cromwell might also be made the basis of a brief essay, discussing his character and ideas.

FOURTH COURSE

Comprising Volumes VII and VIII

OUTLINE OF FOURTH COURSE

Comprising Volumes VII and VIII

From the Granting of Penn's Charter to the British Conquest of Canada.

First Reading. Vol. VII, pages 1-42.
Origin of the Quakers—Founding of Pennsylvania.

Second Reading. Vol. VII, pages 43-100.
Monmouth's Rebellion—Origin of the Salem Witchcraft Delusion—Current Superstitions.

Third Reading. Vol. VII, pages 101-171.
Charter Oak Legend—Early Events in Maryland, the Jerseys, and the Carolinas.

Fourth Reading. Vol. VII, pages 171-233.
Jacob Leisler's Seizure of Authority in New York—His trial and execution.

Fifth Reading. Vol. VII, pages 234-305.
The Witchcraft Persecution in Salem.

Sixth Reading. Vol. VII, pages 306-382.
King William's War—Termination of the Witchcraft Mania.

Seventh Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 1-73.
Queen Anne's War.

Eighth Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 74-143.
Indian Wars in the Carolinas—Foundation of Georgia.

Ninth Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 144-201.

French Explorations in the Mississippi Valley—Expedition of La Salle—Stirrings of Opposition to the Crown.

Tenth Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 202-268.

Expulsion of the Acadians—Early Career of Washington.

Eleventh Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 269-316.

Braddock's Campaign.

Twelfth Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 317-379.

Continuation of the French and Indian War.

Thirteenth Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 380-428.

Montcalm and Wolfe—The Capture of Quebec.

Fourteenth Reading. Vol. VIII, pages 429-460.

Final Conquest of Canada—Pontiac's Conspiracy.

NOTES FOR THE FOURTH COURSE

Volume VII

Page 2. Salem.

The Indian name of Salem was Naumkeag. It is the second oldest town in Massachusetts and received the name of Salem in 1629, the name being taken from the Bible, whence the Puritans drew so much inspiration on all subjects. In Genesis 14: 18-20, where it is said that Melchizedek was King of Salem, is to be found about all that we know about either the city or its sovereign. Salem and Jerusalem have been identified by some writers. The author of the Epistle to the Hebrews (7:2, 3) says that King of Salem means King of Peace, and that Melchizedek was without father, mother, or descent and had no beginning or end of life. Happily the Puritans did not give their towns such grotesque names as they gave their chil-

dren. One of Cromwell's parliaments bears the historical nickname of "Barebones' Parliament." It was so called from one Barebones who took a prominent part in its deliberations, and who rejoiced in the Christian name of "Praise-God." The more-than-Christian-name of "If-Christ-Had-Not-Died-For-Thee-Thou-Wouldst-Have-Been-Damned" is also recorded, while Macaulay has put some verses on the battle of Naseby into the mouth of "Obadiah Bind-Their-Kings-In-Chains-And-Their-Nobles-With-Links-Of-Iron, sergeant in Ireton's regiment."

Page 6. Charles II.

Charles II.'s reference to his "travels" mentioned on this page, was an allusion to his exile after his disastrous defeat by Cromwell at Worcester. For forty-four days he was closely hunted through England, crawling from one place of concealment to another. At one time he was hiding in the thick branches of an oak tree, beneath which Cromwell's pursuing troopers passed without noticing him. He at last got safe across the Channel, and led a wandering and profligate life among such of the various European Courts as dared to defy Cromwell by harboring him. His reign was one of the most shameful in English history, Charles having been content to become a mere hireling of Louis XIV. of France in order to secure the money with which to maintain corrupt expenditures without appealing to Parliament. His court was the nearest approach to a harem that England has ever seen. Three of the present ducal families of England, those of Grafton, St. Albans and Richmond, date back in their origin to his adulteries. He was, however, a man of no small ability, and his genial manners gained for him a degree of popular affection.

Page 25. Quakers.

See Vol. VI, pages 120-122.

Page 26. Penn.

William Penn's father was Admiral Sir William Penn, whose principal achievement was the capture of Jamaica in 1655. He had been appointed a commissioner of the navy by Charles II. In 1665 he won against the Dutch the naval battle of Lowestoft. The Lord High Admiral in this battle was the Duke of York (James II.), but as James's intellect was very mediocre, Penn, his second in command, is credited with the victory. The amount of Charles II.'s debt to Admiral Penn, in consideration of which his son William received the grant of Pennsylvania, was £16,000 ($80,000).

Page 33. Wampum.

Wampum was ornamental white and purple beads, shaped and polished with great care. Eastern Indians in America attached such great value to them that they were used as a regular currency. The purple beads were regarded as of twice the value of the white. This currency was recognized by the colonists, wampum being given a legal rating in terms of English and Dutch money. The beads were also strung on belts or assembled in strings, in accordance with certain symbolic designs, and served as records and guarantees of treaties and other important transactions between the various tribes. Wampum was necessary to give validity to official messages, its use being comparable in a way to that of seals upon important documents. Each tribe had its collection of wampum, guarded by a special custodian, who produced such belts as recorded past agreements when new negotiations with another tribe were entered upon.

Page 34. Wicaco.

The first settlement within the limits of the present city of Philadelphia was made at Wicaco in 1636 by Swedish colonists sent out by Queen Christina.

Page 43. James II.

As Duke of York and Albany before his accession to the throne, James II. has given his name to the State of New York, to its capital city and to the chief city of the New World. James was a son of Charles I. and brother of Charles II., whom he succeeded in 1685. As a sovereign he was a deplorable bungler. His reign was occupied chiefly by obstinate efforts to restore Catholicism in England. He endeavored to gain the support of the Nonconformists against the Established Church by his Declarations of Indulgence, proclaiming religious freedom to all sects, but suspecting his motives, they held aloof. The birth of an heir, to be brought up as a Catholic and to prolong the odious tyranny of James, roused the nation to resistance, and William of Orange, Stadtholder of the United Netherlands and son-in-law of James, was sent for. He landed in 1688 and James was driven from the kingdom. William III. and Mary II. then became joint sovereigns and James retired to France, where Louis XIV. generously continued to pay him the pension he had infamously received while king of England. In 1690 William defeated his army disastrously at the battle of the Boyne, James having invaded Ireland in an attempt to regain his crown. His son and grandson maintained their claim to the throne, and are known as the Old and Young Pretenders. The male line of the Stuart family became extinct in 1807 on the death of Cardinal York, brother of the Young Pretender, who styled himself Henry IX., and wore ermine on his biretta. George III. generously gave him an annuity of £4,000 a year after misfortune had reduced him to poverty. George III. also bore the expense of the fine tomb by Canova in St. Peter's, Rome, which contains the remains of "James III." and his two sons. As James II. lost his throne and Charles I. his head within forty years, it is evident that the English at this time were objecting to their kings as strongly as were the people of the Colonies.

Page 44. Duke of Monmouth.

James Fitzroy, (Fitzroy, in Norman French, means King's Son) Duke of Monmouth, was an illegitimate son of Charles I. by Lucy Walters, and his father's spoiled darling. Altho Charles had twelve natural children, he had no legitimate offspring, and his brother James II., execrated by the nation, was his heir. Charles II., however, would not countenance any of the numerous schemes to set aside James from the succession in favor of Monmouth, whose illegitimacy he asserted before the Privy Council, denying the reported marriage with Lucy Walters. Monmouth's popularity among the nonconformists was immense, and he was known as the "Protestant Duke." After James II.'s accession he invaded England and the Duke of Argyle headed an insurrection in Scotland. At the battle of Sedgemoor, unfortunately for his cause, the royal troops had as second in command, John Churchill, afterward the great Duke of Marlborough, able tho infamous, and Monmouth's forces were destroyed. After making a cowardly submission, Monmouth was executed. Sedgemoor was the last battle that has been fought on the soil of England proper.

Page 44. Kirke.

Percy Kirke was a brigadier-general at the battle of Sedgemoor. The atrocities of his troops won for them the ironical nickname of "Kirke's Lambs." He relieved Londonderry and brought its terrific siege to an end in 1689.

Page 45. Judge Jeffreys.

After William III.'s landing the unspeakable Lord Jeffreys tried to escape from England in the disguise of a sailor. An attorney whom he had browbeaten recognized him in a beer-house and gave the alarm, whereupon the mob seized the notorious official murderer and dragged him before the Lord Mayor. The House of Lords tried him and

committed him to the Tower, where he died. His worst crime was the judicial murder of Lady Alice Lisle, the wife of a regicide, whom he forced the jury to convict for having merely given shelter to a dissenting minister, and to one she did not even know to have been accused of treason. He sentenced her to be burned, but this was commuted to beheading. One of Lady Lisle's daughters was the wife of Leonard Hoar, an early president of Harvard College. The ferocious eye of Judge Jeffreys is said to have exercised a fascination over prisoners, whom he terrified by roaring curses, threats and oaths from the bench. Macaulay says that Jeffreys "had one of those happily constituted intellects which, across labyrinths of sophistry and through masses of immaterial facts, go straight to the true point." Still, with all his strong mental powers, his corroding selfishness and lack of principle so blasted the fabric of his life that he has been called "the very worst judge that ever disgraced Westminster Hall."

Page 81. Witchcraft.

The student must not suppose that Salem enjoys a solitary distinction on account of its witchcraft panic in 1692. Belief in witchcraft, or commerce with the powers of evil, is very old. The twenty-eighth chapter of First Samuel records the belief of ancient Jews in witches; and Exodus xxii:18 contains the command "Thou shalt not suffer a witch to live," upon which were based the odious cruelties practiced in the name of religion up to comparatively recent times. Belief in witchcraft was prevalent in ancient Greece and Rome; the Inquisition gave attention to it, and Pope Innocent VIII. in 1484, happily in days before the Pope had been pronounced infallible, launched a bull against it. Protestants proved themselves as credulous as Catholics. Luther was a believer, and John Wesley in 1768 stated that to give up witchcraft was to give up the Bible.

In Germany the mania reached its height; but it invaded all Christian lands. Witchcraft for a time was the commonest of crimes. The Chancellor of the Bishop of Wurtzburg, writing in 1629, tells a fearful story of the conditions existing in that city. Fully a third of the city's population he said was involved in witchcraft accusations, including 300 children between three and four years of age. No age, rank, or profession, not excepting the clergy, was exempt.

"A week ago," he says, "a maiden of nineteen was put to death, the fairest in the whole city, and held by everybody a girl of singular modesty and purity. She will be followed by seven or eight of the best and most winsome. I have seen children of seven put to death."

In the city of Treves 7,000 victims perished. A single judge in Nancy, France, boasted of having put 800 persons to death for witchcraft. Torture was the chief agent for obtaining witchcraft confessions, testimony and new accusations, and for lack of it in England, that country has a particularly good record. Salem was the only place in the British colonies where anything resembling the European witchcraft horrors took place; but prosecutions occurred in Connecticut and Virginia and in other parts of Massachusetts. Mexico has the unenviable distinction of having judicially burned witches as late as 1873.

Page 101. Andros.

For previous history see Vol. VI, page 246.

In 1677, Massachusetts, which had previously taken steps to possess itself of territory in Maine and New Hampshire, purchased the claim of Sir Ferdinando Gorges in Maine for £1,250. This clever move aroused the wrath of Charles II., who had had Maine in view for the Duke of Monmouth, and in 1679 he demanded the release of Maine by Massachusetts, on the repayment of the amount paid to Gorges. Massachusetts, under its original charter as a trading company, had

then risen to its leading position among the colonies. In 1684 Charles annulled this charter by *quo warranto* proceedings. (*Quo warranto* in Latin means "by what right." Writs of *quo warranto* are still issued to determine the rights of individuals or corporations to enjoy public privileges and to expel those who may have unlawfully secured them). Massachusetts thus became a royal colony. When James II. came to the throne he attempted to pursue the same tyrannical policy in the Colonies that had lost him his crown in England. He sent out Sir Edmund Andros as governor of the provinces of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Maine and New Hampshire. Rhode Island, promptly upon demand from Andros, delivered up her charter in 1686. Connecticut, when a similar demand was made, proved refractory, thus giving rise to the Charter Oak legend, which is without historical basis, as related in this chapter. Andros nevertheless annexed both Rhode Island and Connecticut to the government of New England, and in 1688 his rule was extended to New York and New Jersey. He governed tyrannically and grievously invaded the rights of the colonists. The accession of William and Mary brought about his downfall; the Connecticut and Rhode Island charters were recognized as still valid, New Hampshire was erected into a royal province, and Massachusetts received a new charter as a crown colony, with a governor appointed by the king. Maine continued under Massachusetts' rule. In 1692 Andros was made governor of Virginia, in which province he enjoyed popularity.

Page 134. Numa.

Numa Pompilius, according to legend, was the second king of Rome, being the successor of Romulus. He is the reputed founder of many Roman institutions, and his long reign is represented as one of great peace, prosperity and happiness.

Page 145. Monk.

The Restoration of the Stuarts was almost wholly due to the initiation of George Monk. Monk had achieved great renown during the Commonwealth, both as a general and an admiral. After Cromwell's death, being chief in command of the army, he became convinced that the Stuarts should be restored for the good of the country, and finally declared for Charles II. Charles made him duke of Albemarle, and in 1666, four years before he died, he gained a great victory over the Dutch off the North Foreland.

Page 150. Edict of Nantes.

See note, Reformation, Vol. III, page 2.

Page 186. Proteus.

Proteus was the guardian of the sea-herds of Neptune (or Poseidon). According to legend, he had the power of transforming himself into any shape he desired. If he could be held firmly through all his transformations he would assume his original form and then tell his captor the exact truth as to the future.

Page 203. Knickerbocker.

The descendants of the Dutch settlers in New York have been dubbed Knickerbockers, and New York City is personified as "Father Knickerbocker." Washington Irving's burlesque history of New York, whose authorship he attributed to one Diedrich Knickerbocker, was not relished by the Dutch New Yorkers of his time. Some trace of the feeling against him remains to this day.

Page 221. Dongan.

Thomas Dongan secured important charters to the cities of Albany and New York. As governor of the province of

New York, he ruled with ability and, tho sent out as a Catholic to further James II.'s schemes, he refused to comply with the king's orders to introduce French priests among the Indians of the Five Nations. An enmity existed between him and William Penn, whose influence with the king is believed to have been one cause of Dongan's recall. He succeeded to the earldom of Limerick on his brother's death in 1698.

Page 228. The Five Nations.

The "Five Nations" was the English name of the Indian confederacy called by the French the *Iroquois*. The tribes or nations were the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas and Senecas. About 1720 they were joined by the Tuscaroras and were thenceforth called the "Six Nations." According to tradition, Hiawatha was the great chief who formed this confederacy, which, as an organization, still exists. Their hereditary enemies were Indians of the Algonkin tribes (or Algonquins) by whom they were driven out of their original hunting-grounds on the St. Lawrence. The French leagued themselves with the Algonkins and the Iroquois became the allies of the English, to whom they generally remained faithful. Having been supplied with firearms by Dutch traders, they avenged themselves on the Algonkins; and about the year 1700 were dominant over the country from the Kennebec nearly to the Mississippi and from the Ottawa River to Carolina. They were a deciding factor against the French in the Franco-English conflict over Canada. Most of the tribes comprising the confederacy sided with England during the Revolution and many of them, under their great war leader, Joseph Brant, emigrated to Canada. They are to-day generally prosperous, advancing in civilization and in numbers, and indeed are quite as numerous as they ever were.

Page 231. Joseph Dudley.

Joseph Dudley was the son of Thomas Dudley, the second governor of Massachusetts, and next to Winthrop the most important man in the colony. He was born in Roxbury, Mass., in 1647. Sent to England on a colonial mission in 1682, he devoted himself to winning the favor of the court, and succeeded so well that in 1686 he was made President of Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire and New York. Under Andros, Dudley acted as Judge of the Superior Court and press censor. In 1687, while presiding at the trial of the Rev. John Wise, of Ipswich, Mass., for stirring up a movement against paying taxes without representation, he said: "Mr. Wise, you have no more privileges left you than not to be sold for slaves," a fairly accurate summing up of the then state of affairs. The charges made against him after the fall of Andros, when he was imprisoned and sent to England for trial, were dismissed, and he was made chief justice of New York, in which office he presided at the trial of Leisler and Milbourne. Going to England, he served as lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Wight for eight years. In 1702 he was made governor of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, to the disgust of those provinces, an office which he held until 1715. His administration, tho arbitrary, was ably conducted.

Page 308. King William's War.

King William's War in America was a minor part of a great European war waged by the Grand Alliance of the Emperor, England, Holland, Bavaria, Spain, Savoy and Saxony, under the leadership of William III. of England, against Louis XIV. of France. (See Sketches of English and French History, Vol. V, Introductory Note; and Vol. IV, note to page 288). It was closed in 1697 by the Treaty of Ryswick, which took away nearly all of Louis's recent conquests, and left affairs in America where they were before the war.

Page 309. Frontenac.

Louis de Buade, Count of Frontenac, was the most distinguished of the early rulers of New France. He began a policy of granting considerable political privileges to the inhabitants of his provinces; but the crown disapproved of such measures. He promoted the exploring expeditions of La Salle, Joliet and Marquette. He also vanquished the Iroquois. Schenectady was burned by him.

Page 314. William Phipps.

The career of Sir William Phipps, first royal governor of Massachusetts, was highly romantic. He was born in a remote village in Maine of a family of twenty-six children, of whom twenty-one were boys. He was a shepherd until eighteen years of age and did not learn to read until twenty-two. After learning the trade of a ship carpenter in Boston, he went to England, where the admiralty aided him with a ship in his plan of recovering treasure from a sunken Spanish galleon that had been wrecked off the Bahamas. He was at first disappointed, but a second attempt was successful, and he received £16,000 ($80,000) as his share of the £300,000 in treasure he recovered from the wreck. As a further reward he was knighted and made Sheriff of New England. After the campaign against the French, he, in 1692, was made governor of Massachusetts. He appointed a special court to inquire into witchcraft cases, and tho he at first lent himself to the persecution, he at last suppressed it by granting a general pardon. He was given to violent outbreaks of temper, and while governor personally assaulted two of his enemies, the collector of the port of Boston and a captain in the English navy. At the time of his recall in 1695 he was quarreling with nearly all the leading men in the province. He died the same year in England, whither he had gone to answer the charges

made against him. He was enterprising, upright, and patriotic, but of small intellectual powers.

Page 324. Dustin.

Dustin's Island is located about six miles from Concord, N. H. The name is also spelled Dustan (the preferred form) and Duston. The Indian family from which the escape was effected consisted of two men, three squaws and seven children.

Page 325. National Debts.

England's National Debt was increased by about $750,000,000 by the Boer War, and it now (1906) stands at $3,885,000,000. France has the largest National Debt among nations, $5,856,700,000. The National Debt of the United States is about $996,000,000.

Page 331. Stoughton.

William Stoughton was lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts from 1692 until his death in 1701, and acting governor from 1694-1699. He gave liberally to Harvard College, where his name is perpetuated in Stoughton Hall. His fame has suffered, however, from his conduct during the witchcraft trials over which he presided.

Page 331. Cotton Mather.

Cotton Mather was the son of the celebrated Increase Mather, to whom Sir William Phipps owed his appointment as governor of Massachusetts. Cotton Mather, tho eminent as scholar and divine, is remembered chiefly for his amazing infatuation regarding witchcraft. In 1689, three years before the outbreak of the delusion in Salem, he wrote "Memorable Providences Relating to Witchcraft and Possessions," and in 1693 he brought out his "Wonders of the

Invisible World,'' a marvel of credulity. He is not the only man in history, however, who has mistaken crime for God's service; and tho he was instrumental in destroying some innocent people whom his distorted vision represented to him as agents of the devil, he did a great deal of positive good in his earnest labors in behalf of poor sailors, criminals and Indians. He fought against intemperance and rendered himself highly unpopular by his advocacy of inoculation for small-pox.

Page 331. Oyer and Terminer.

Oyer and Terminer, in Anglo-French, means to hear and determine. *Oyer and Terminer* is one of the commissions issued under the king's great seal to English judges of the higher courts, empowering them to try cases on their regular circuits, or assizes. Special commissions of oyer and terminer may be issued in times when speedy trial is urgent, such as during a riot or insurrection. Exercising the royal power, as governor, Sir William Phipps constituted persons of his choice as a court ''to hear and determine'' the witchcraft cases, under a commission of *oyer and terminer.*

Page 378. Captain Kidd.

William Kidd, the son of a Scotch minister, is one of the most notorious of pirate captains, rather because of the number of cracked-brained people who have tried to find his buried treasure than because of the magnitude of his crimes or exploits. He was commissioned by the Earl of Bellamont, the governor of New York and Massachusetts, to assist in suppressing piracy and to serve as a privateer against the French. He had not been long away when it was reported that he had turned pirate. Hearing this, he came to Boston and delivered up a quantity of treasure procured during his cruise, but protested his innocence of piracy. He was sent to England charged with having

murdered one of his seamen. After a very unfair trial he was convicted of murder and piracy and hanged. There is good reason, however, to be very skeptical about his commission of the various desperate crimes with which his name is popularly associated. The treasure which he secured from his capture of the famous ship *Queda Merchant*, for which digging expeditions are organized even yet from time to time, was unearthed in Gardiner's Island, near Montauk Point, L. I., by the Colonial authorities in 1699, two years before Kidd's execution.

Page 381. Parris.

Samuel Parris was born in London, but, when young, emigrated to Massachusetts. After the witchcraft delusion, which had originated in his house, had passed away, the Salem church brought charges against him. He acknowledged his error, but was dismissed and left Salem. He afterward preached in other Massachusetts towns. He died at Sudbury, Mass., in 1720.

Page 382. Salem.

Salem to-day is a city of over 35,000 inhabitants. During the eighteenth century it was famous for its foreign commerce, which has now virtually passed to Boston. It is still important as a manufacturing town. The homes of Roger Williams and Nathaniel Hawthorne in Salem are of special interest to visitors. During the witchcraft mania nineteen persons in all were hanged and one, Giles Cory, was pressed to death because he wouldn't plead.

Pressing was a form of torture applied to prisoners who would not plead either "guilty" or "not guilty" on a charge of felony. It consisted in placing the victim upon his back and loading him down with weights. If he continued obdurate so long as to need refreshment, he was regaled with bad bread and water from the nearest stag-

nant pool. Pressing, technically known as *peine forte et dure*, "strong and sore torture," was abolished in England in 1772. Cory seems to have been the only American victim of this barbarous judicial proceeding. Persons who now refuse to plead before a court are assumed to have plead "not guilty."

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume VII

Who was George Fox, and what religious sect did he found? *Pages* 24, 25.

Who founded Pennsylvania, and why was it so named? *Page* 28.

How did Penn obtain Delaware? *Page* 29.

Describe Penn's treaty with the Indians. *Page* 31.

Describe the laying out of Philadelphia. *Page* 35.

What were Penn's relations to the Colony during his closing years? *Pages* 40, 41.

What effect did Monmouth's Rebellion have in America? *Page* 47.

In whose household did the Salem witchcraft delusion originate? *Page* 67.

Mention some of the superstitious beliefs regarding witches prevalent at this time. *Chap. V.*

Narrate the legend of the Charter Oak at Hartford, Conn. *Chap. VI.*

What circumstances led up to Maryland becoming a royal province in 1692? *Pages* 136-138.

When and how did Annapolis become the capital of Maryland? *Page* 139.

What circumstances brought about the division of New Jersey? *Page* 140.

Sketch briefly the history of New Jersey from this division up to the Revolution. *Pages* 141-144.

What were the principal events in the history of the Carolinas between 1670 and 1695? *Pages* 145-151.

What effect did the accession of William and Mary have on the American Colonies? *Page* 217.

Narrate the career of Jacob Leisler. *Pages* 218-233.

When did the first public examination of witches in Salem take place? *Page* 253.

Who was the chief instigator of the witchcraft trials? *Page* 258.

Mention a typical example of the testimony against those accused of witchcraft. *Page* 266.

Narrate the principal events of King William's War. *Pages* 308-314.

By what treaty was it closed and on what terms? *Page* 325.

Relate the story of Hannah Dustin's escape from the Indians. *Pages* 321-324.

What part did Cotton Mather and lieutenant-governor Stoughton take in the witchcraft trials? *Pages* 331 *and note.*

What brought the delusion to an end? *Page* 342.

Students should be asked to prepare an essay on the subject of "The Witchcraft Delusion in Salem," by way of demonstrating their acquaintance with Volume VII.

NOTES FOR THE FOURTH COURSE

Volume VIII

Page 4. Queen Anne.

Anne was the second daughter of James II. During the first eight years of her reign she was under the influence of the Duchess of Marlborough, wife of the "Great Duke," who thus directed the affairs of the kingdom. She was the first sovereign to assume the title of Queen of Great Brit-

ain, England and Scotland being united in her reign (1707). She was the mother of seventeen children, none of whom grew up. Her reign was distinguished by a great intellectual movement, and many famous writers, such as Pope, Swift, Addison, Steele, and Defoe, have made it illustrious. The philosopher Berkeley and the great scientist Sir Isaac Newton were also ornaments of this reign. Queen Anne herself, tho good-hearted, was a person of small ability and did nothing to promote the intellectual achievements which signalized her reign. Queen Anne's war in America was a side-issue in the great European war of the Spanish Succession, waged by a coalition of powers headed by England against Louis XIV., who wished to place his grandson on the throne of Spain. The Duke of Marlborough at the head of the allied armies, cooperating with the famous Prince Eugene of Savoy, administered a series of terrible defeats to the armies of Louis—Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709). Gibraltar was captured by the English, and the eccentric Earl of Peterborough conducted a brilliant campaign in Spain, whence, however, after his departure, the allies were expelled by the French commander, the Duke of Berwick, a son of James II. of England and the Duke of Marlborough's sister. The treaty of Utrecht in 1713 put an end to the bloody struggle and to the ambitions of Louis; for, while his grandson gained the Spanish throne (whence arose the Spanish Bourbons, the present reigning house in Spain), it was stipulated that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united. England received Gibraltar, Minorca, and Acadia in America.

Page 94. Archdale.

John Archdale was sent out to America from England by Governor Gorges as his agent in Maine. During the course of his administration of North Carolina, of which

he was one of the proprietaries, he introduced the culture of rice.

Page 96. Tribute.

The reference to paying tribute "to neither God nor Cæsar" is in allusion to the incident related in Matthew 22:17-21, in which Christ commands his followers to render unto Cæsar (that is, the civil authorities) the things that are Cæsar's; and unto God the things that are God's.

Page 99. Spotswood.

Alexander Spotswood (or Spottiswood) was lieutenant-governor of Virginia from 1710 to 1722, in which office he displayed energy and judgment. He improved the tobacco culture, cared for the Indians, introduced the manufacture of iron and promoted the interests of William and Mary College. He was born in Tangier, Morocco (which belonged to England from 1662 to 1684), and was wounded at the great battle of Blenheim.

Page 100. Palatinate.

The Palatinate was formerly an independent principality of the Holy Roman Empire, and its ruler, the Count Palatine of the Rhine, or, in German, the *Pfalzgraf*, was one of the seven hereditary electors of the Emperor. The Palatinate under the elector Frederick II. embraced Protestantism during the Reformation. Frederick V., son-in-law of James I. of England, and ancestor of the present English reigning house, seeking to gain distinction in the Protestant cause, lost his domains, and the Upper Palatinate passed to Bavaria. The Lower Palatinate, however, was restored to his son in 1648. In 1685 Louis XIV. of France claimed the Palatinate and invaded it in 1688. Finding it would be impossible for the French to maintain themselves in the country, Louis's great war minister Louvois ordered its devastation, one of the most ruthless acts in history.

A Roman Catholic dynasty succeeded to the throne in 1685. Thousands of Protestants left the country in 1709 and 1710 and fled to England. Thence many of them emigrated to America, settling in North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia and New York. These settlers were known as "Palatines," and from them have descended the people now known as Mohawk, Schoharie and Pennsylvania "Dutch." The Upper Palatinate now belongs to Bavaria, and the Lower, or Rhine, Palatinate is divided up between Bavaria, Baden, Hesse and Prussia. The famous University town of Heidelberg was the capital of the Palatinate from the thirteenth century to 1720.

Page 100. Graffenreid.

The Baron de Graffenreid was a Swiss nobleman, to whom in 1709 the Lords Proprietors of Carolina granted 10,000 acres on the Neuse and Cape Fear rivers. New Bern they so named in honor of the Baron, from his birthplace, Bern, the present capital of Switzerland. Graffenreid sold his American property and returned to Switzerland soon after his capture by the Indians.

Page 127. Howard.

To the labors of John Howard is largely due the reformation of the dreadful conditions previously existing in English prisons. He spent his life and a considerable fortune in investigating prisons and hospitals in England and on the continent; and to his published accounts of his labors and testimony before the House of Commons was due the beneficent introduction of hard labor in English prisons, the abolition of jailers' fees and the improvement of prison sanitation. The plague next engrossed his attention, and he investigated lazarettos, or plague hospitals, in various parts of Europe. He died of fever at Kherson in 1790 while studying Russian military hospitals. John Howard is one of the social heroes of the race.

Page 135. Piedmontese.

The Piedmontese are natives of Piedmont, the northwesternmost division of Italy, so called because it lies at the foot of the mountains (the Alps).

Page 136. Debtors' Prisons.

The words put into the mouth of Noah Stevens on this page, to the effect that there were no prisons for debtors in America, are misleading. New York, in 1831, was the first state to abolish imprisonment for debt. In some of the states, however, the practice had never existed, and it never prevailed in the United States to the extent it did in England, where it was abolished in 1868. Dickens' novel "Little Dorrit," the earlier scenes of which are laid in the Marshalsea, one of the great debtors' prisons, did much to stir up public sentiment against the system.

Page 143. Wesley.

John and Charles Wesley were the fifteenth and eighteenth children respectively of Samuel Wesley, an Episcopal clergyman of Epworth, England. The name "Methodist," now applied to the second largest religious sect in the English speaking world, which was founded by John Wesley, originated with his brother Charles, who, when at Oxford, began a movement for a stricter regulation of conduct. He was nicknamed "Methodist," because he urged the observance of "the method of study prescribed by the University." Neither of the brothers was popular in America, because of the rigidity of conduct which they advocated. John Wesley, on his return to England, became very intimate with the Moravian Brethren, a Bohemian sect which was developed from the teachings of John Huss; and in 1739 he began his extraordinary career as preacher. Thousands of converts soon flocked to him, and from the societies he formed arose the present Methodist Church.

Before he died he was the head of over 500 churches with 120,000 members and nearly half a million adherents. He was one of the most potent influences in the regeneration of the religious and social life of his century. Charles Wesley is famous for his hymns, many of which are constantly used by various denominations.

Page 145. New France.

The shaping influences in the French colonization of America were both geographical and racial. Racially the French settlers were fond of roving, adventurous lives, and among their leaders were many dashing, elegant and high-spirited courtiers, in striking contrast with the staid and sober Englishmen of New England, who were content to till their farms—not eager to reach out for more land than they could cultivate. The great river systems with which the French came in contact at the outset constantly invited them to new explorations. It is a fact of great significance in American history that Champlain, the founder of French influence in America, should have come into collision with the powerful Indian confederation of the Iroquois. The ceaseless hostility of these tribes not only forced the French to avoid the lower great lakes in their early explorations toward the Mississippi (the order in which the great lakes were discovered was Huron, Ontario, Superior, Michigan, and Erie), but also interposed a barrier between their posts on the St. Lawrence and the Atlantic seaboard, which was thus reserved for English settlement. It was the effort of the ambitious French to wall up the English by a chain of forts in the narrow fringe of territory along the seacoast, when their natural increase was forcing them farther west, that brought on the French and Indian War and ended forever French influence in America. New France was wretchedly governed, in spite of the fact that some of its governors, such as Champlain, Frontenac and De Non-

ville, were men of great ability. The civil and military organization was almost feudal, the self-governing spirit so highly developed in the British colonies being conspicuously absent. The province was divided into judicial districts, which were subdivided into seignories, or lordships. The lord or seigneur was the master of the seignory, and his tenants, or *habitants,* were almost wholly dependent upon him. The seignories were divided into parishes, where the good priests cared for the souls and blunted the minds of their flocks. The country was wholly dependent upon the king, whose caprice now lavishly favored the colony, now abandoned it in favor of some other project. The only continuity of colonial policy was in the general corruption that included the farming out to court favorites and commercial companies of trade monopolies. The occupation of the famous *Coureurs de bois* was that of trade with the Indians in evasion of the regulations which sought absolutely to repress all traffic not sanctioned by the crown charters. The French got along astonishingly well with the Indians, and intermarriage was not infrequent.

Page 145. Discovery.

See Introductory Note to Second Course.

Page 158. Marquette.

An important railroad, the Père Marquette, bears the name of this noble Jesuit priest.

Page 160. Colbert.

Jean Baptiste Colbert was one of France's most illustrious statesmen, tho he had the evil fortune to have for a master Louis XIV., who used Colbert's consummate financial talents to extort money from a starving people in order to maintain extravagant expenditures and reckless schemes of foreign aggrandizement. Colbert was born of a bourgeois, or middle class family, but by dint of industry

and efficiency won the notice of Cardinal Mazarin, who, when dying, recommended him to Louis XIV. Louis appointed him comptroller-general of the finances, in which office he worked veritable miracles with the revenues. Later, as minister of marine, starting with a few rotting craft, in the course of a few years he made a navy for France. Industry and commerce revived under his direction and the arts and sciences found in him an enlightened promoter. Canada felt the strong hand of the able minister. It was due to him that the king was constrained to pursue a liberal policy toward the Huguenots, who, two years after Colbert's death (1683) were driven from France in great numbers by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Colbert was upright in character, but stiff and cold in manner, which rendered him unpopular at Louis's profligate court.

Page 173. Cavalier.

La Salle's name was René Robert Cavalier; his title was Sieur de La Salle.

Page 183. Whitefield.

George Whitefield, the founder of the Calvanistic Methodists, visited America seven times in all, dying at Newburyport, Mass. He was famous in England as an open-air preacher, and vast crowds thronged to hear him on open spaces near large cities. The Countess of Huntingdon patronized him and gave him an opportunity of speaking to more aristocratic folk than those whom he addressed out of doors. He was a most eloquent and persuasive speaker, but intellectually inferior to his friend John Wesley.

Page 186. War of 1739.

This war is known in history by the odd name of "War of Jenkins's Ear." Sir Robert Walpole, the prime minister, was opposed to war with Spain, which the greater part

of the nation was trying to force upon him. Jenkins was the master of a Jamaica trading sloop, who arrived in England in 1738 with one of his ears missing. This he said had been barbarously torn off by Spanish coast guards, who had searched his vessel for evidence of smuggling. The story, probably false, for Jenkins seems to have lost his ear in the pillory (cropping the ears being a favorite method of punishing thieves in those days), was seized upon by the war party, which roused public indignation at the alleged outrage to such a degree that war had to be declared. The war merged later into the general European conflict over the Austrian succession. (See Note, page 201).

Page 195. Amphictyonic Council.

The Amphictyonic Council was composed of two representations from each of the twelve Greek tribes. They met twice a year, alternately at Delphi and Thermopylæ. They assembled primarily to arrange matters concerning the worship of Apollo, the guardianship of his sacred property, and the Pythian games in his honor. The Council had the power to regulate affairs of peace and war among the tribes composing the League. The Amphictyonic Council foolishly invited Philip of Macedon to enter Greece as its agent in chastising the Locrians, and thus paved the way for Macedonian supremacy and the decay of Greece.

Page 199. Lion's Mouth.

In the Doge's Palace in Venice may still be seen a slit in the wall of an ante-chamber, through which in the days when Venice was ruled by the all-powerful "Council of Ten," were thrust anonymous accusations and letters containing secret information. This slit was concealed by the sculptured head of a lion, whence its popular name, the "Lion's Mouth." The Council deliberated in secret and its decisions were swift and ruthless. It is not at all likely that it ever acted solely on the mysterious information it

received through the Lion's Mouth, tho when it suited its purposes it put men to death without trial or definite charge. This was the "Lion's Mouth" alluded to in Frothingham's letter.

Page 201. Austrian Succession.

The War of the Austrian Succession was wantonly brought about by Frederick the Great of Prussia, who had been one of the important European sovereigns who solemnly adhered to the "Pragmatic Sanction," by which the Emperor Charles VI. sought to secure the succession to his beautiful and fiery young daughter, Maria Theresa. Frederick violated his engagement, invaded the Austrian province of Silesia and precipitated a general European war in which most of the continental powers joined Frederick, hoping to get a share of the loot of the Austrian dominions. England, always against France, remained faithful to Austria. Frederick gave only moderate evidence of those splendid talents which later raised him to the front rank of military commanders. Indeed, at his first battle, that of Mollwitz, he betook himself to something suspiciously resembling flight, and the battle was won without him. The greatest military figure in this war was the French commander, Marshal Saxe, a natural son of Augustus II. of Saxony. He was the victor in many battles, one of them that of Fontenoy, where in 1745, after a fierce encounter, he beat the allied English, Dutch, Austrians and Hanoverians under the Duke of Cumberland. It was at this battle, so the story goes, that an English commander, when on the point of attacking the French line, cried out: "Gentlemen of the French Guard, fire first." To which the gallant Frenchmen shouted back, "We never fire first; fire yourselves," whereupon the English line burst into flame. The descent of the "Young Pretender" upon Scotland drew off the British forces. The last hope of the House

of Stuart vanished at the bloody battle of Culloden, where in 1746 the faithful Highland supporters of "Bonnie Prince Charlie" were slaughtered by the royal troops under the Duke of Cumberland. The war of the Succession was terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, in which nobody was the gainer except Frederick, who kept Silesia. The American phase of this war is known as King George's War.

Maria Theresa, however, was determined to regain Silesia, and her activity brought on, in 1756, the *Seven Years' War*, in which, France having gone over to the support of Maria Theresa and Austria, England sided with Frederick the Great and Prussia. England's chief support consisted of heavy subsidies and she abandoned Frederick in 1757 as soon as George II.'s kingdom of Hanover was placed in jeopardy. By the most extraordinary exertions, Frederick maintained himself against tremendous odds and gained a series of brilliant victories, from whose glory his frequent crushing defeats cannot detract. The change of Russia from an enemy to an ally of Frederick saved him when his kingdom was on the verge of utter prostration. Prussia emerged from the struggle as one of the first of European powers.

England and France had in the meantime been carrying on their own particular strife in India and America, the American phase being known as "the French and Indian War." Lord Clive's great victory of Plassey in 1757 placed the Indian Empire in England's hands, and the naval victories of Lagos and Quiberon raised her naval power. The chief events of the French and Indian War were Braddock's Defeat, the Expulsion of the Acadians and the Capture of Quebec. The treaty of Paris in 1763 closed the war. France ceded to England Canada, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, Mobile, all her territory east of the Mississippi, and several West India Islands. Spain gave up the Floridas to England in exchange for Havana, and

France ceded Louisiana to Spain. This war is of the greatest significance in American history, for it removed from the Colonies that constant menace of French aggressino which had hitherto forced them to depend on the mother country for protection.

Page 207. Admiral Boscawen.

Edward Boscawen, after his successful operations against the French in Canada, achieved his most notable victory at the Bay of Lagos in 1759, where he defeated the French Toulon fleet. He is still known by his sailors' nickname for him of "Old Dreadnought," a title to which he frequently demonstrated his right.

Page 211. Evangeline.

The author in the chapter describing the expulsion of the Acadians, has apparently accepted the version of this story upon which Longfellow based his poem of "Evangeline." There may be different opinions as to the merits of "Evangeline" as poetry, but as history it is unqualifiedly bad. The people as it describes them never existed; and that any government should resort to such a barbarous outrage on such unoffending and highly desirable settlers as are there described is preposterous. The facts of the case are that the Acadians were ignorant and superstitious to an incredible degree. A French writer tells us that the substantial homes described in Evangeline were really "wretched wooden boxes without ornament or convenience;" and the lives of these Acadian farmers which, according to the poet

> "Glided on like rivers that watered the woodlands,
> Darkened by shadows of earth, but reflecting an image of heaven,"

were varied by incessant quarrels among themselves and now and then a raid on the English in the disguise of In-

dians. By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the Acadians had been specifically declared British subjects by France, but they steadily refused to take the full oath of allegiance to Great Britain and were a source of constant danger. For this their priests, emissaries of the French government in Upper Canada, which wished to reconquer Acadia, were responsible, for they told their credulous flocks that allegiance to King Louis and allegiance to God were the same, and that to swear allegiance to King George would consign them to everlasting damnation. The chief of these priests was Le Loutre, who administered spiritual consolation to the Indians and paid them liberally for English scalps.

When the covert war between England and France broke out in America in 1754, about two years before the actual declaration of hostilities in the Seven Years' War, 1,800 New England troops were raised and placed under the command of lieutenant-colonels Winslow and Scott. Under the chief command of Colonel Monckton, this force, joined by a small detachment of British regulars, took, in June, Forts Beauséjour and Gaspereau on the isthmus near the present town of Amherst. Meanwhile the Acadians, believing a French force on the way, became very insolent and demanded back the arms of which they had been deprived. Governor Lawrence,—fully alive to the gravity of the situation, for the French greatly outnumbered the English in the province,—refused them arms and demanded that the deputation take an unqualified oath of allegiance to King George. They refused. The council met and decided that the Acadians should either take the oath or leave the country, and deputations representing about nine-tenths of the French population were ordered to Halifax and warned that if they refused the oath they did so at the peril of losing their lands. The people replied that they preferred to lose their lands rather than their souls; tho they probably thought there was no danger of either, for French writers

have attested the fact that the English rule had hitherto been exceedingly mild and liberal. Then the blow fell, and the New England troops, who bore the most conspicuous share in the unhallowed transaction, did their work well. About 6,000 in all seem to have been carried away from the province and strewed all along the coast from Massachusetts to Louisiana, where they suffered severely. It is on record that those who went up to Canada among their own kindred met with the harshest treatment of all. A great many of them found their way back to Nova Scotia, where their descendants now live on the shores of the Bay of Fundy, not as "Evangeline" tells us, "along the shores of the misty Atlantic."

Tho the expulsion of the Acadians was the result of grave provocation and seemed to those who ordered it unavoidable as a military necessity in the fierce struggle against the French in America, there is no denying its terrible severity; and neither old England nor New England, which share the unenviable celebrity of the event, can ever wholly unburden their consciences of the deed. The statement that the British and New Englanders coveted the lands of the Acadians is falsified by the fact that it was not until five years after the expulsion that British settlers came to take the vacant places.

Page 236. Washington.

George Washington was the son of Augustine Washington, by his second wife Mary Ball, and he was the great-grandson of John Washington, who emigrated from England about 1657. The various genealogies of Washington which trace his ancestry further back than 1657 are questionable. One delver in ancestry, more than ordinarily equipped with the genealogist's imagination, has discovered that Washington's original progenitor was Odin, the chief deity of the Scandinavian mythology. This is in line with the practise of ancient peoples, who traced back their line-

age to some great hero and then procured a divine parent for their founder. "Ancestors! My dear sir, I am an ancestor myself," was the Earl of Beaconsfield's contemptuous rebuke to a snobbish peer who had been flaunting his ancestry. Washington may have been badly off for aristocratic ancestors, but the whole of this great nation is proud to call him "Father."

Page 237. Fairfax.

Sir William Fairfax, father-in-law of Lawrence Washington, was a younger brother of Thomas, sixth Baron Fairfax, who inherited estates in Virginia embracing twenty counties, equal to nearly a quarter of the whole Colony. Lord Fairfax came out to Virginia in 1739; and, tho the most prominent royalist in the province during the Revolution, he remained there until his death in 1782. He belonged to the same family as the celebrated Lord Fairfax, the commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces against Charles I. He promoted the fortunes of George Washington when a young man, and the Revolution did not break their friendship. He had the honorable good fortune of commanding the esteem of both patriots and royalists.

Page 242. William and Mary College.

This institution, which takes its name from the sovereigns in whose reign it was chartered, was founded in 1639. Only Harvard among America's institutions of learning is older. Among its distinguished graduates have been Benjamin Harrison, Carter Braxton, Thomas Nelson and George Wythe, signers of the Declaration of Independence; Edmund Randolph, Chief Justice John Marshall, General Winfield Scott and the presidents, Jefferson, Monroe and Tyler.

Page 244. Ohio Company.

Two companies formed for the purpose of developing the Ohio Valley have borne this name. The first was formed by Virginians with some London partners in 1749. George

II. granted them 500,000 acres of land. In 1772 another company, called the Walpole Company, received a vast grant in the same region and the two companies were merged. A new company, "The Ohio Company of Associates," received a grant in the Ohio Valley from Congress after the close of the Revolutionary War.

Page 270. Newcastle.

Thomas Pelham, first duke of Newcastle, was the most powerful minister in England for many years, and one of the most grotesque statesmen of all time. It was he who, learning for the first time that Cape Breton was an island, was so delighted with his discovery that he hastened to communicate it to the king. It was said of him that he "did nothing with the same hurry and agitation as if he were doing everything." He entered into a coalition with the great Pitt on the understanding, so it is was said, that "Pitt was to do everything and the Duke was to give everything," an allusion to the vast and ably conducted system of patronage by which Newcastle bolstered up his influence. It is to his credit, however, that with every opportunity of enriching himself during his long public life, his political career left him $1,500,000 out of pocket. Macaulay says of him: "All the able men of his time ridiculed him as a dunce, a driveller, a child who never knew his own mind for an hour together; and he overreached them all round."

Page 285. Franklin.

Benjamin Franklin, born in Boston, was the son of an English colonist. The career of the illustrious author, statesman, philosopher, diplomat and scientist is too well known to require elaboration. We need only remind the student that, at the time of the events narrated in this

chapter (1755), he had already achieved a great reputation in the colonies. His "Poor Richard's Almanac" was very popular. He had originated the American Philosophical Society, the University of Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia Library. He had also contributed greatly to household comfort by his invention of the stove which bears his name. An account of his famous kite experiment, by which he established the identity of lightning and terrestrial electricity, had been read before the Royal Society of London in 1753. His discovery was at first ignored, even derided, but in 1764 Oxford, Edinburgh, and St. Andrew's Universities bestowed on him the degree of LL.D., and in 1775 he was made a Fellow of the Royal Society (F.R.S.) and granted the Copley gold medal. At the Albany Congress called in 1754 to discuss ways and means for the impending war, he represented Pennsylvania and proposed a plan (the "Albany Plan") for a federal colonial government which many believe would have averted the Revolution had it been adopted by the colonies and the Crown after its passage by the convention. He was deputy postmaster-general for the colonies from 1753 to 1774.

Page 315. Braddock.

Edward Braddock, who was born in Perthshire, was highly endowed with the proverbial Scotch obstinacy, and had he been called upon to lead a British brigade at Minden, let us say, the very qualities which made his failure so disastrous in the Pennsylvania wilds might have gained him great distinction. The Canadian historian, Kingsford, has the following to say of Braddock's defeat:

"Many statements are made concerning this action which I am unable to recognize as worthy of respect. . . . It has been reported that Braddock reproved his men for fighting behind trees, and that the Virginians were the only troops who showed courage. One account sets forth

that 'the Virginians who formed the rear-guard still stood unbroken and continued the engagement on very unequal terms nearly three hours, but were then compelled to retire.' The action lasted scarcely two hours; there was no rear-guard; and there could not have been 200 provincial troops in the column. The official account describes the general flight to the river; and in the panic which seized the troops the Virginians were neither better nor worse than the other regiments.''

Kingsford describes the excellent dispositions for the march made by Braddock, and ascribes the disaster to a want of caution in not sending forward scouting parties to explore the ground in front, which would have revealed the ravines in which the French and Indian marksmen posted themselves under perfect cover. ''Braddock's indifference and neglect of the Indians, his delay at Fort Cumberland, reveling and roistering ,his failure properly to estimate the provincial soldiery, his brutality to his own soldiery; all such statements may be dismissed as fables, as the previous narrative establishes.''

The force which inflicted this disaster was a motley collection of 250 French Canadians and 230 Indians, all of whom were in a state of panic when the English advance guard under Gage poured in an answering volley to their first shots. The French commander, Beaujeu, the planner of the surprise, was hit, and the French part of the force promptly fled. Dumas, who succeeded to the command, managed to keep the Indians from following the French example, and thenceforward they maintained the fight with that determined heroism which characterizes all soldiers when behind safe defenses. They lost 57 men, including five officers. Washington was the only one of Braddock's aides-de-camp who escaped unhurt. The English lost all their military stores; Braddock's papers and instructions from the ministry, which were promptly forwarded to Paris; and the military chest containing £25,000.

Page 298. Gates-Gage.

It is an interesting commentary upon the character of the Revolutionary War that Thomas Gage and Horatio Gates, who were both Englishmen and served under Braddock, Gage as lieutenant-colonel, and Gates as major, should later have taken opposite sides in the conflict, Gage becoming the British commander-in-chief in America, and Gates one of the prominent generals of the Revolutionary forces.

Page 326. Sir William Johnson.

Johnson was an Irishman who, at his home in the Mohawk Valley, had made himself very popular among the Indians by his straightforward trading relations with them. On the outbreak of the French and Indian War he was entrusted with the sole charge of Indian affairs in New York, and he did the Colonies a great service by preventing the powerful Six Nations from joining the French. After defeating Baron Dieskau at Lake George, he gained distinction by the capture of Fort Niagara and the destruction of the French army. His influence over the Six Nations was so great that he was able to keep them from joining Pontiac's great conspiracy in 1763. Johnstown, N. Y., where Johnson erected a mansion which is still standing, was named in his honor.

Page 333. Abercrombie.

The stupid and incompetent James Abercrombie of Ticonderoga fame must not be confounded with the illustrious Ralph Abercrombie, one of the most distinguished of British generals. James Abercrombie, whom the Colonials dubbed "Mrs. Nabbycrombie," is one of the most astonishing specimens of those warriors whose promotion is procured by court favorites over the heads of officers who have only ability to recommend them.

Page 380. Montcalm.

Louis Joseph, Marquis of Montcalm de Saint-Veran, became a captain in the French army at the age of eighteen. He served with distinction in Italy and Germany before his appointment in 1756 as commander-in-chief in Canada, with the rank of *Maréchal de Camp*. "Field-Marshal" is the translation of this title; but Montcalm's rank was not the equivalent of the English field-marshal, which is the highest in the service, and corresponds to the old rank of Marshal of France. *Maréchal de Camp* corresponded more nearly to that of major-general, which is three grades below field-marshal, general and lieutenant-general intervening.

As many students are not familiar with military grades, we take this occasion to state that below major-general the ranks descend as follows: brigadier-general, colonel, lieutenant-colonel, major, captain, lieutenant. In the navy the descending order is admiral of the fleet, admiral, vice-admiral, rear-admiral, commodore, captain (which ranks relatively with colonel in the army) and commander. Below commander in the American navy are lieutenant-commander, lieutenant and ensign. In the British, lieutenant and sub-lieutenant. Our navy being small, we have no active flag officer above the rank of rear-admiral.

Page 383. Pitt.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, the most illustrious of English statesmen, was born in 1708. He entered parliament at the age of twenty-seven as member from Old Sarum, one of the famous "rotten boroughs" which had once been populous but had so dwindled as to admit of ready purchase. Old Sarum (Salisbury is New Sarum) sent two members to Parliament before the Reform Bill of 1832, tho it had no inhabitants. Many great statesmen entered parliament through "rotten boroughs," or "pocket boroughs," as were called those constituencies which, through the same process of decay as the rotten boroughs, had

fallen into the gift of some great nobleman or family; and one of the arguments against the reform of such constituencies, extraordinary as it may seem, was that without them many men like Pitt might be deprived of seats. In 1746 Pitt's power and popularity had reached such a pitch as to force the reluctant king to appoint him to office. His energetic and brilliant administration seemed to galvanize England's forces in all parts of the world.

It is doubtful if any man ever enjoyed more extravagant popular favor than that bestowed upon Pitt after the successes attending his policy in America, India and on the continent. George III., stupid, obstinate and prejudiced, could not tolerate so brilliant and fiery a minister; and, wishing, when he came to the throne in 1760, to be an actual sovereign of the antiquated Stuart pattern, forced Pitt's resignation in favor of Lord Bute. Shortly afterward, at a public dinner, the young king was ignored in the midst of an outbreak of wild enthusiasm which greeted Pitt, and Bute was pelted in the streets. Pitt's popularity was impaired in 1766 by his acceptance of an earldom, in spite of which, however, he is still known by his prouder title of "The Great Commoner." Failing health forced his retirement from office in 1768. He frequently took his place in the House of Lords, however, after his partial recovery in 1771, to inveigh against the blundering and oppressive policy pursued by the administration toward the American Colonies.

Pitt was an extraordinary man: he could see beyond the selfish clamor of the hour. We need not wonder, then, that he declared that the Colonies were right in their resistance to the mother country. He did this altho he believed that the tocsin that sounded the independence of America would sound the knell of England's greatness. Under this singular illusion his fiery spirit could brook no surrender; and in 1778 he entered the House of Lords to speak against terminating the war in the face of defeat. The House

listened in absolute silence and profound respect to the broken and confused utterances of the old man whose flaming oratory had once fired all England. Rising to reply to an answer to his speech, he fell back in convulsions, and died a few weeks after. A magnificent public funeral was voted, and he was borne in gloomy pomp from the Painted Chamber to the great Abbey, "where lie the greatest dead in the world." "Among the eminent men whose bones lie near his," says Macaulay, "scarcely one has left a more stainless, and none a more splendid name." Lord Brougham calls him "the most successful statesman and most brilliant orator England has ever produced." And Dr. Johnson is reported to have said: "Walpole was a minister given by the king to the people, but Pitt was a minister given by the people to the king." Certainly he was the first minister whose strength rested, not on the support of the Commons, but on the support of the people. And we can safely say that he made the popular welfare the ruling aim of his life.

Pitt's second son was the renowned William Pitt, great orator and great statesman, like his father, and Napoleon's evil genius.

Page. 405. Lord Howe.

Brigadier-general Lord Howe was the elder brother of the more famous Richard, Earl Howe, who was naval commander-in-chief in America in 1776 and victor in 1793 over the French in the great naval battle off Ushant, called by the English "the glorious first of June." Sir William Howe, the military Commander-in-Chief during the first part of the Revolutionary War, was a still younger brother.

Page 403. Lycurgus.

Lycurgus, who lived in the ninth century B. C., was the traditional originator of the laws and institutions of the Greek tribe of the Spartans, whose national life was that

of an armed camp. Only robust infants were permitted to live. At the age of eight all boys began their training for a military life. Between the ages of twenty and sixty the Spartan lived in garrison, constantly training in physical and military exercises and taking his meals at the public tables. He was allowed to marry at thirty, the state reserving to itself the choice of a suitable wife. Women also underwent a gymnastic training which admirably fitted them to be the wives and mothers of such men. Every citizen of the state being a soldier, all the active work of agriculture and other industry was performed by their numerous slaves, or "helots." The familiar admonition of the Spartan mother to her son, to come back from battle with his shield or upon it, illustrates the spirit of this stony-hearted people—whence our word *Spartan*. Such training made them great warriors. By the sixth century B. C. Sparta became the leading military state in Greece; and after defeating Athens in the Peloponnesian War (431-404 B. C.) she maintained her supremacy in Greece until 371 B. C., when the former iron discipline of the Spartan soldiery having been relaxed by prosperity, they fell before the splendid leadership of the great Theban Epaminondas at the battle of Leuctra. The Lycurgan laws were maintained, nominally at least, even after Sparta had passed under Roman rule in 146 B. C.

The most famous exploit in Spartan history was the defense of the Pass of Thermopylæ against an immense Persian army by a band of 300 Spartans and 700 Thespians, under the Spartan king Leonidas. Only one Spartan escaped; and it is related that he was treated by his compatriots with such contumely for not dying with his comrades that he was forced to commit suicide.

Page 409. James Wolfe.

Wolfe was the son of general Edward Wolfe, an officer of ability. He entered the army as second lieutenant at the age of 14. His dashing conduct and marked ability gained him rapid promotion. He fought at Dettingen, where, in 1743, the English under the command of George II. beat the French; at Culloden (see note, Austrian Succession, page 201); and distinguished himself at Lawfeld, where Marshal Saxe in 1747 defeated the English and allies under the Duke of Cumberland. As quartermaster-general of the expedition against Rochefort in 1757 he attracted the attention of the ever-watchful Pitt, who gave him command of a brigade in the expedition against Louisbourg, where his skilful and gallant conduct gained him the popular title of 'the hero of Louisbourg,'' which, in view of his great victory at Quebec, has almost passed out of the popular memory.

Page 423. Montcalm.

Montcalm's impatient words, when his attention was called to the distant British forces in line on the Plains of Abraham, are reported to have been: *''Oui, je les vois où ils ne doivent pas être; je vais les écraser.''* (Yes, I see them where they have no business to be; I am going to crush them.)

Page 453. Lord Amherst.

Jeffrey Amherst was the commander at the siege of Louisbourg and the successor of Abercrombie as commander-in-chief in America. He took Ticonderoga and Crown Point in 1759. After the final conquest of the French he was made governor-general of British North America. Like so many other British generals of that period, he could not understand why tactics which would succeed on European battle-fields would not be all the more effective against savages; and, holding the usual contempt of the professional

for the colonial militia, he proved incompetent to cope with Pontiac and returned to England, where he was most enthusiastically welcomed. He was made a baron in 1776, commander-in-chief in 1793, and field-marshal in 1796.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume VIII

Who captured and re-named Port Royal? *Page* 52.

Give an account of Sir Hovenden Walker's abortive attempt on Quebec. *Pages* 55-73.

Describe the Tuscarora War. *Pages* 101-104.

When and for what purpose was paper money issued by South Carolina? *Page* 105.

How and when did South and North Carolina become royal provinces? *Pages* 115, 116.

When and where was George Washington born? *Page* 116.

How did English debtors' prisons affect American history? *Page* 133.

Describe the interest taken in England in Oglethorpe's colonial plan. *Page* 134.

Narrate the circumstances attending the founding of Savannah and the early history of Georgia. *Pages* 138-143.

Describe the principal early French exploring expeditions in the Mississippi Valley. *Pages* 144-158.

Who named Louisiana, and why? *Page* 163.

Why was La Salle thwarted by his subordinates? *Pages* 167, 170.

Give a brief account of La Salle's expedition to the Gulf of Mexico, and his assassination. *Pages* 164-178.

Describe the Spanish attempts upon Georgia. *Pages* 183-191.

Mention the distinguishing characteristics of Virginians and New Englanders at this period. *Pages* 191, 192.

Who first suggested a union of the Colonies? *Page* 195.

Give an account of the boyhood and youth of George Washington. *Pages* 236-241.

Why was Washington sent by Dinwiddie to the French commander in the Ohio Valley? *Page* 249.

Describe Braddock's defeat and state the reasons therefor. *Pages* 288-316.

Name the greatest of the French commanders in Canada, and mention some of his achievements. *Pages* 380-398.

What was William Pitt's policy toward the Colonies? *Pages* 383 *and Note.*

Narrate some of Putnam's adventures. *Page* 407.

Describe Wolfe's preliminary movements before Quebec. *Pages* 409-418.

Describe the Battle of the Plains of Abraham. *Pages* 419-428.

Who completed the conquest of Canada? *Page* 453.

Describe Pontiac's conspiracy. *Pages* 457-460.

What were the terms of the first Treaty of Paris? *Page* 456.

The Founding of Georgia, Braddock's Campaign, the Capture of Quebec, and the French explorations in the Mississippi Valley are appropriate topics for essays on Volume VIII. Advanced students may be asked to deal with the poetic and historic versions of the expulsion of the Acadians, using Chapter IX, Longfellow's "Evangeline," and the note to page 211 as material. An excellent discussion of this poet's work can be found in Stedman's "Poets of America."

FIFTH COURSE

Comprising Volumes IX and X

OUTLINE OF THE FIFTH COURSE

Comprising Volumes IX and X

From the Close of the French and Indian War until the Peace of Ghent.

First Reading. Vol. IX, pages 1-52.
Causes of the American Revolution.

Second Reading. Vol. IX, pages 53-124.
Battles of Lexington and Concord—Patrick Henry—Flora Macdonald—Bunker Hill.

Third Reading. Vol. IX, pages 125-159.
Declaration of Independence—The Hessians.

Fourth Reading. Vol. IX, pages 160-226.
Long Island—Trenton—Lafayette.

Fifth Reading. Vol. IX, pages 227-295.
Saratoga—Brandywine—The British at Philadelphia—Valley Forge.

Sixth Reading. Vol. IX, pages 296-336.
Monmouth—Massacres at Wyoming and Cherry Valley.

Seventh Reading. Vol. IX, pages 337-382.
Southern Campaign—Benedict Arnold's Treason.

Eighth Reading. Vol. IX, pages 383-443.
Greene's Campaign against Cornwallis and Rawdon—Yorktown—The New Republic after the Treaty of Peace.

Ninth Reading. Vol. X, pages 1-60.

Jefferson's Administration. War against the Barbary Pirates.

Tenth Reading. Vol. X, pages 61-112.

Events leading up to the War of 1812.

Eleventh Reading. Vol. X, pages 113-173.

Harrison's campaign against Tecumseh—Rise of the War Feeling.

Twelfth Reading. Vol. X, pages 174-225.

British impressment of American Seamen.

Thirteenth Reading. Vol. X, pages 226-284.

Declaration of War—Early Disasters—The Peace Party.

Fourteenth Reading. Vol. X, pages 285-331.

Land Operations.

Fifteenth Reading. Vol. X, pages 332-396.

Naval Engagements.

Sixteenth Reading. Vol. X, pages 397-441.

New Orleans—Treaty of Ghent—Conditions after the War.

NOTES FOR THE FIFTH COURSE

Volume IX

Introductory.

Soon after the close of the French and Indian war, various causes of trouble between England and her colonies, hitherto held in check by the constant menace of the French on the frontier, came to a crisis, and issue was finally joined over long-standing differences.

The French war itself had given to the colonials a valuable course of military training. It had also accustomed them to concerted action and thus given them a sense of unity. Not the least important lesson learned was that in American forests, swamps and mountains, the English regular soldier was out of his element. Indirectly, moreover, through Pontiac's conspiracy, it had convinced the British ministry that a standing army was necessary to protect the colonial frontiers and thus gave rise to a fatal proposal to make the colonies bear one-third the cost of maintaining such an army.

The close of the French war coincided with the accession to the British throne of a king whose fixed determination was to make the sovereign the mainspring of government and no longer to submit to the practical effacement of the monarch as a political force, which had begun with the eviction of James II. George III. succeeded in making parliament the instrument of his personal government, parliament thus lending itself to the schemes of his ministers for a closer royal regulation of colonial affairs.

At this period two of the colonies, Connecticut and Rhode Island, were charter colonies, with full privileges of self-government; one, Massachusetts, was semi-royal—that is, her original free charter had been modified so that she now had a royal governor who possessed a veto over the acts passed by the elective legislature; seven, New York, Virginia, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Georgia and North and South Carolina, were royal provinces, with governors appointed by the crown; three, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland, were still proprietary colonies, deriving their political rights from charters granted by their proprietors. All had representative legislatures comprising two houses, except Pennsylvania and Delaware, which had legislatures of but one chamber. In Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island the towns elected the lower house and the people at large the upper. In Maryland and all the royal

provinces, the people elected the lower house, and the crown, through the governor, appointed the council, or upper house.

When the British Ministry began its policy of interference in American affairs, it did so on the theory that all these colonies were essentially nothing more than large corporations founded by the king and that parliament had therefore full rights of control over them. The colonials, on the other hand, developed the counter-theory that they were new royal dominions, that George III. was as much an American king as he was a British king, and that parliament had no authority over them. This loyalty to the sovereign sprung from the fact that a royal grant was held to be irrevocable, while parliament was free to cancel and modify its acts from session to session.

The close of the French war brought up the question of the disposition of the region newly conquered from France. Under their charters the colonies had been granted territory from the Atlantic coast to the Mississippi river, but a proclamation in 1763 practically reserved the territory west of the Alleghanies as royal domain. The "Quebec Act," in 1774, which annexed all the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio to Canada, deeply stirred colonial hostility and was one of the causes which precipitated the Revolutionary war.

The first step taken by the ministry was a renewal of the Navigation Acts (see note, Vol. VI, page 293), the legality of which the colonials had never questioned, but which they had systematically evaded. As already explained, some provisions in these acts were highly beneficial to the colonies, which, tho prohibited from trading in many "enumerated articles" except with England, (by far their most valuable market) actually received a bounty on some other articles, such as tar, hemp and masts.

The system of regulating colonial trade, however, was wrong in principle, and attempts to establish it exasperated the colonials, who felt that, whatever legal right parlia-

ment, may have had to obstruct their trade, it had no moral right to do so. They systematically evaded the laws until parliament made a misguided attempt to assert itself firmly.

The attitude of England, on the other hand, is comprehensible. It had as yet entered the minds of very few Europeans that a colony existed for any other purpose than for the exclusive benefit of the mother country. Spain was still wringing vast quantities of treasure from her colonies; Canada under French rule had been nothing but a preserve for royal trading companies. It did seem a great hardship to most Englishmen, after having preserved the American colonies from France at great cost of blood and treasure, to find those colonies so ungrateful as to resent an English monopoly in trade and manufactures. They could not see that the way to gain the largest markets in America was to let the Americans produce and exchange goods in perfect freedom. We should not blame the English of that time too severely for erroneous economic ideas. England did not learn the lesson of free exchange until long afterward—not until the middle of the last century. The United States, France and Germany have not learned it yet; and commercial greed is still rampant and a fruitful cause of international strife.

The immediate cause of colonial resistance was the extraordinarily stupid policy adopted by the ministry regarding taxation. The most extreme measure proposed would not have covered the expenses incurred by England in governing the colonies, and the total amount so raised did not reach $2,000,000 in ten years. (England at this time was carrying a national debt of $665,000,000.); but while it finally withdrew every measure of attempted taxation the British ministry, under the inspiration of the stupid king, insisted on maintaining the right to tax, and thus goaded the exasperated colonials into acts of violence, which met with reprisals, brought on resistance, bloodshed, and war.

The actual grievances of the colonies were relatively not many nor severe. Could France have exchanged the tyranny of Louis for that of George III. as exhibited in America, the whole nation would have dissolved in tears of grateful joy. But the political tempers of the British and French peoples were totally different. Louis might tax his subjects until they ate grass, and starvation stalked through the land; but England's American colonies would tolerate no invasion whatever of the great traditional principles of British political liberty, in supporting which so many of their ancestors had been forced to leave England for the freedom of a new world.

Page 10. Titles.

English titles being of frequent occurrence in this volume, many students will find a few words of explanation regarding them of interest. The highest title in the British nobility is that of duke, and then marquis (or marquess), earl, viscount, baron, baronet and knight follow in descending order. Nobles of the rank of baron and above constitute the peerage. All except Irish and Scotch peers are entitled to seats in the house of lords, which takes the place of our senate. A certain number of "representative peers," however, are elected by the Scotch and Irish peerages to represent Scotland and Ireland in the House of Lords. The title of prince in Great Britain is confined to members of the royal family. According to British custom, only one member of a titled house is a noble. The rest have no other title except by courtesy, which accords to the heir his father's second title if he have any, or "Right Honorable," or "Honorable," otherwise. Bearers of courtesy titles are eligible to seats in the house of commons. Irish non-representative peers may also sit for an English constituency in the house of commons. This custom has made the English nobility far more democratic than that of the continental nations, where all the members of a titled fam-

ily are nobles. The large number of eminent men who are annually made peers in recognition of services in science, statesmanship, the professions, war, art, literature, journalism, diplomacy and commerce lends distinction to the British peerage and makes it popular.

Page 10. Earl of Bute.

John Stuart, third Earl of Bute, obtained complete ascendancy over the mind of George III. No English minister was ever more unpopular than he. He frequently stood in no small peril of the mob, whose hatred he incurred by his policy of reasserting the decayed power of the sovereign, and because he owed his political position to royal favor and not to conspicuous parliamentary services. Detestable as a statesman, he was a scientist of considerable capacity. He lost his life while pursuing his favorite study of botany. The nation was the gainer by the splendid bequest of his library and picture gallery. The head of the house of Bute, now a marquis, is to-day among the world's richest men.

Page 10. Princess Augusta.

Princess Augusta was the widow of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and the mother of George III. Both she and her husband were close friends of the Earl of Bute; but the scandal regarding their relations seems to have been founded solely on the slanderous gossip of the court.

Page 11. Rehoboam.

Rehoboam was the worthless son of King Solomon. See I Kings 12.

Page 30. James Otis.

When application was made to the Supreme Court of Massachusetts for writs of assistance, Otis was the advocate-general of the admiralty, in which capacity he refused to perform his official duty of arguing in favor of the writs.

Instead, he resigned his office and eloquently pleaded against them. It was on his motion in the Massachusetts State legislature that the Stamp Act Congress, to which he was a delegate, met in New York in 1765. A series of notable pamphlets which he wrote against taxation by parliament made him highly popular among those who were then regarded as extremists in the popular party. A denunciation of the Boston commissioners of customs brought him into a personal conflict with one of them, in which he received a cut on the head, that gave rise to the insanity which blighted the remainder of his life. He was at the battle of Bunker Hill, and was killed by lightning in 1783.

Page 31. George Grenville.

The king, William Pitt (Lord Chatham) and George Grenville stood for three quite different systems of government in England. Pitt, for his support, looked to the nation as represented in parliament, but unfortunately, parliament was not then constituted as it is to-day, when probably there is no legislative body in the world so responsive to public opinion, and Pitt, even when idolized by the nation, found that he could not secure his power except by alliance with the corrupt duke of Newcastle, who, by lavish use of his own and the public funds, had built around him what, in the slang of modern politics, we should call a "machine."

The king wished to be a constitutional monarch; but he was determined really to govern and not simply to sign documents as his predecessors had been content to do. When he found parliament hostile to his favorite minister, the earl of Bute, he assented to a system of debauching parliament by which he secured for his own measures the support of a corrupt faction of what we might now term "grafters," who rejoiced in the euphemistic designation of "the king's friends."

All the royal patronage went to these hungry hangers-on, and in return their parliamentary votes were placed at the king's disposal. When the enlightened and upright Rockingham ministry brought in the bill to repeal the Stamp Act, these "king's friends" came near defeating it, in spite of the fact that nearly the whole nation was crying out for its repeal. Had the English people been truly represented by parliament and the ministry, there never would have been any Stamp Act or Boston Port Bill.

George Grenville was at heart more despotic and tyrannical than George III., tho parliament, not as the representative of the nation, but as the sovereign delegate of the people's powers, was in his mind the supreme authority of the empire. He wished parliament to domineer over the colonies in the same manner as parliament, in his person, domineered over the sovereign, whom he browbeat and insulted at cabinet meetings to such a degree that the unfortunate, weak-minded king was once thrown to the verge of a fit. Abhorrent, however, as Grenville personally was to the king, George III. was at one with him in a policy which should teach the colonies the majesty of the English monarch, who, by the way, had not a drop of real English blood in his veins.

Grenville and Pitt, though brothers-in-law, quarrelled. Pitt railed at Grenville's policy of taxing the colonies, and Grenville retorted that it was Pitt's previous wasteful conduct of affairs that had made such taxation necessary. Grenville has the historical nickname of the "Gentle Shepherd," derisively fastened upon him by Pitt during a debate regarding a tax on cider. Grenville, who spoke with a monotonous whine, repeatedly asked the House where they would have the tax placed, if not on cider—"Tell me where," he insisted. Grenville, expecting an assenting silence, paused for an answer, whereupon Pitt, mocking the minister's tone, repeated a line from a popular song, "Gentle Shepherd, tell me where." The House burst into

uproarious laughter, and Pitt emphasized his contempt of Grenville by stalking out of the House.

Grenville, on account of his assaults on popular liberty in England, which were quite as serious as his assaults on colonial rights, was highly unpopular. When he emerged from the house at the close of the debate on the repeal of the Stamp Act, he was hissed and howled at by the mob.

When Pitt made his appearance on the same occasion, the mob cheered themselves hoarse and he was accompanied to his home by a shouting crowd.

Page 33. Charles Townshend.

Townshend was a man of splendid and versatile talents; but lack of balance made him a wretched failure as a minister. He came to the front during that lamentable period when ill-health had overclouded Pitt's mind to such a degree that, though still nominally prime-minister, he had actually been eliminated as a factor in public affairs.

Pitt had formerly overawed Townshend; but Townshend now gave his erratic spirit full play and the British government became, as he himself expressed it, "a weathercock." His measure to raise taxes by an English land-tax being defeated, with his usual recklessness, he tried to make good the deficiency by levying import duties in America. He died in 1767 before the consequence of his folly became evident.

Pitt recovered from his infirmity in 1771 and labored to repair the evils that his own errors before his retirement, and those committed by his successors in the meantime, had brought upon the country; but, though he splendidly restored his own fame, he failed, even with the support of some of the ablest statesmen in England, to check the ministry in its suicidal policy toward the colonies.

Page 34. Samuel Adams.

It has been asserted that had it not been for the irreconcilable activity of Samuel Adams, the breach between the colonies and the mother country might have been healed even so late as after the so-called "Boston Massacre;" for when the troops had been withdrawn from Boston to an island in the harbor after that affray, hostility seemed to be dying out in Massachusetts. It was principally Adams who devised the Committees of Correspondence, which exchanged news and arguments between town and provinces, and kept alive the agitation and inflamed the opposition by constantly harping upon grievances.

These committees also made up lists of those who were ready to revolt, prepared an organization for rebellion, and kept the legislatures in touch with one another. It is doubtful if at the outbreak of the war, had a vote been taken, it would have been found that the patriot party had a clear majority over the loyalists. Indeed, Washington himself stated that he "abhorred the idea of independence," when he took command of the continental army in 1775; but ardent and vehement natures like Adams were among those who had determined on independence and they overcame the unorganized, unprepared and lethargic tories.

It was Samuel Adams who proposed the bill in the Massachusetts General Court calling for a colonial congress, and it was his committee of correspondence that largely supplied the place of a legislature when general Gage as military governor dissolved the assembly in accordance with the high-handed act of 1770 abrogating some of the provisions of the charter. Adams was three times Governor of Massachusetts.

Page 37. Patrick Henry.

Patrick Henry was a native born Virginian. His family connections were distinguished, for his father, a Scotchman, was a nephew of William Robertson, the celebrated historian. He was also a relative of Lord Brougham, the famous English orator and statesman. His mother belonged to a very gifted English family, the Winstons

At school he was not promising, and his early career as tradesman and farmer was marked by failure. As a lawyer, however, he at once achieved great success, though his legal training was very scant; and he leaped into prominence in 1763 by his bold oratory against the crown as counsel in the celebrated case known as the "Parsons' Cause."

In 1765 he was elected to the Virginia house of burgesses, where he spoke upon the resolutions against the stamp act "in torrents of sublime oratory."

He was one of the earliest and boldest of the advocates of independence and his fiery oratory was one of the impelling causes of the revolution. Henry was the first governor of the state of Virginia. When the question of the ratification of the constitution came up he was a determined anti-federalist. "The constitution," he said, "had an awful squinting towards monarchy." He is ranked as one of the greatest of American orators.

Page 40. Fox.

There were two distinguished men of this name in the history of this period in England, Henry Fox, Lord Holland, and his illustrious son, Charles James Fox, whose mother was a great-granddaughter of Charles II.

Henry Fox started as a rival of Pitt, of whom he was in many ways the intellectual equal; but Pitt's purity made him the nation's idol, while Fox's corruption won him disrepute. He secured a parliamentary majority for

Lord Bute's ministry on the question of the peace of Paris, by wholesale bribery, intimidation, and a veritable official slaughter of those who had previously been appointed to office by the opponents of the government.

Charles James Fox was the most constant opponent of George III.'s policy toward America as represented by Lord North; and he faithfully predicted its consequences. He was a man of superb talent, and his vehement eloquence was constantly employed in the cause of liberty. He was the friend of France during the French revolution and the determined enemy of the younger Pitt.

Page 40. Burke.

There are few greater names in English history than Edmund Burke, statesman, author, philosopher and orator. Born in Dublin and educated when a boy by a Quaker, he entered public life as secretary to Lord Rockingham in 1765. He distinguished himself in parliament by his industry, integrity, knowledge, eloquence and grasp of affairs. Americans remember him principally for his masterly orations on "Conciliation with America" and "American Taxation." Macaulay says that "he possessed an understanding stronger than that of any statesman, active or speculative, of the eighteenth century."

It is a melancholy commentary on the state of affairs in England at that time that a dull king's obstinacy could prevail in the American policy as against three such magnificent geniuses as Burke, Fox and Pitt.

Page 45. Lord North.

Frederick North, Earl of Guilford, deserves the obloquy which has been heaped upon him, not so much because he was George III.'s instrument in executing the oppressive policy which resulted in war with the American colonies, as because he stooped to carry out a policy which he knew from the first would be disastrous.

Page 46. Barré.

It was from a chance allusion in one of Colonel Barré's speeches in the house of commons that the "Sons of Liberty," an organization which forced the Stamp Act officers to resign and destroyed their stamps, took its name.

Page 48. Sons of Liberty.

The first blood of the Revolution was shed during the skirmish mentioned on this page between the "Sons of Liberty" and the British troops who tore down the liberty pole erected near the site of the present New York city hall. The affray is known as the "Battle of Golden Hill." John Street, now overshadowed by the towering office buildings of the financial district, traverses the former Golden Hill, which was a bit of rising ground covered with wheatfields from which it took its name.

Page 49. Boston "Massacre."

The statue erected to the victims of the so-called "Boston Massacre" expresses the ultra-patriotic view of an incident which is still a subject of controversy. Had there been no patriotic considerations involved, and had the soldiers concerned been a native instead of a foreign garrison, it would have been difficult to distinguish from common rioters these persons who have since been praised as martyrs to the cause of liberty.

As with all revolutions, the success of our cause against Great Britain became its justification. Every act which effected a forward step, however violent or unlawful it might be considered in other circumstances, has become invested with some of the sanctity with which success has endowed the general revolutionary movement.

The patriots of the revolutionary period were by no means all saints, neither were the British and Tories all

evilly-disposed, bloodthirsty and wicked. Among the patriots, as is always the case in any cause, was a vicious and worthless element, ever ready to profit by opportunities for lawlessness; and there were at hand, goading these people on, self-seeking leaders, eager for a change that would favor their fortunes and constantly inflaming popular sentiment whenever animosity toward England showed signs of abating.

Nothing could have been more unwise than the sending of soldiers to Boston, tho the inactivity of the colonial authorities in the presence of mob violence, after the passage of the Stamp Act, seemed to justify this step. Even native regular soldiers are usually unpopular in a garrison town; and the dullest of kings might have foreseen that his red-coated troops would at once become the objects of popular execration. Soldiers, moreover, are not noted for their gentleness and courtesy, and in such circumstances they were sure to retaliate viciously should they be set upon by the populace.

This is precisely what happened in Boston after the arrival of the British regulars in 1768. The streets became the scene of constant brawls between the soldiery and that element of the community which in all garrison towns is given to baiting a uniform, passions in this case being doubly heated by the fact that the uniform was a symbol of an authority toward which resentment was rapidly deepening. Collisions of this kind had been constant; but bloodshed did not result until Boston had been garrisoned by the British troops for about eighteen months. On Friday, the second of March, 1770, a general fight took place between a considerable number of soldiers and the employees at Gray's ropewalk. The soldiers got the worse of it and were eager for revenge. On the following Monday morning, the 5th, the colonel of one of the regiments, accompanied by his officers, searched the ropewalks for the missing body of a murdered sergeant. The rough element among the

townspeople seem to have made preparations for another encounter; and in the evening of Monday bands of them armed with big clubs, swords and even guns, turned out and collected near the barracks of one of the regiments. Parties of soldiers issued out and fighting ensued. Officers, however, came upon the scene, knocked some of the soldiers down, drove them back into the barracks and shut the gates. The mob in the meantime pelted the officers. Some of the crowd suggested that they set fire to the four corners of the barracks, but, finally, yelling, hurrahing and cursing, they started off for the main guard near the custom house, on the present State street, where there were some soldiers on duty.

In the meantime, trouble had broken out between the sentry posted at the custom house and a crowd of boys and young fellows. Captain Goldfinch, one of the officers who drove the soldiers into the barracks, had passed near the sentry on his way thither. An impudent barber's boy called out after him in insulting words and the sentry officiously stepped out and struck the boy with the butt of his musket. Shortly afterward a crowd, to whom the sentry had been pointed out as the one who had beaten the boy, pelted him with snowballs and pieces of ice and menaced him to such an extent that he called for the main guard to which he belonged to come to his assistance. About the same time some persons ran up to the main guard and told the officer that his sentry was being killed. A corporal and a file of seven men were at once ordered out, and Captain Preston followed. They formed in a half circle, in front of the custom house and the sentry took his place with them. Meanwhile, the mob which had been rioting in front of the barracks had set a number of church bells ringing, probably for the purpose of collecting enough people to make a general attack on the soldiers; and numbers of persons, thinking it an alarm of fire, hurried out. The soldiers were soon surrounded by a yelling crowd, conspicuous among

whom was a band of twenty or more sailors, armed with stout clubs and led by a huge half-breed Indian, Crispus Attucks. In the subsequent trial of the soldiers for firing on the townspeople, John Adams referring to this crowd said: "We have been entertained with a great variety of phrases to avoid calling this sort of people a mob. . . . The plain English is gentlemen, most probably a motley rabble of saucy boys, negroes and mulattoes, Irish teagues and outlandish jack tars, and why we should scruple to call such a set of people a mob, I can't conceive, unless the name is too respectable for them." Further on in the course of the same speech, he said: "And it is in this manner this town has been often treated; a Carr from Ireland (Carr was one of those shot), and an Attucks from Framingham, happening to be there, shall sally out upon their thoughtless enterprises at the head of such a rabble of negroes, etc., as they can collect together, and then there are not wanting persons to ascribe all their doings to the good people of the town." "I do not know whether there was any attempt to steal," said Mr. Adams, "but there were some persons concerned who would probably have stolen if there has been anything to steal."

This mob, then, howled around the soldiers, cursed them in foul language, beat on their guns with clubs, threw sticks, pieces of ice, oyster shells, and such other rubbish as was lying about, all the time calling them cowards and daring them to fire. They thought that soldiers could never fire under any circumstances without an order from a magistrate. Just before Gray, one of the victims, was shot, he ran among the crowd clapping one and another on the back and telling them not to run, for the soldiers dared not fire. The soldiers stood their ground and kept pushing the crowd back with their bayonets and warning them to keep off. Finally, Attucks seized one of the soldiers' bayonets and struck him heavily. One witness swore that the soldier was felled by the blow and that his gun flew out of

his hand. At any rate he staggered back, and immediately fired, killing Attucks on the spot. The crowd then surged forward upon the soldiers; six others of whom fired, one after another, killing two more and wounding eight, two of the latter mortally. There was no reliable evidence to show that Captain Preston, who had repeatedly begged the crowd to keep back, gave any order to fire.

Terrible excitement at once spread abroad among the populace. One of the regiments was called out and drawn up across the street in lines ready to fire on the threatening crowds, and for a time it looked as if there would be a pitched battle. The soldiers, however, were marched back to their barracks, the crowd slowly dispersed and Captain Preston and the soldiers were arrested. Shortly afterward, on the insistent demand of the townspeople, both regiments of soldiers were removed from the town and quartered on an island in the harbor.

At the trial which was held in the following October, evidence from which the foregoing narrative is taken, was presented. The testimony offered exhibited the extreme excitement and passion under which the town was laboring, and some of it was contradictory. The evidence of Dr. Jeffries, Patrick Carr's surgeon, when taken in connection with the mass of corroborative testimony, bears strongly in favor of the soldiery. When Carr was dying, Jeffries asked him a number of questions to get the right version of the story. "I asked him," he said, "whether he had thought the soldiers would fire; he told me he thought the soldiers would have fired long before. I asked him whether he thought the soldiers would have been hurt if they had not fired; he said he really thought they would, for he heard many voices cry out, 'Kill them!' I asked him then, meaning to close all, whether he thought they fired in self-defense or on purpose to destroy the people; he said he really thought they did fire to defend themselves; that he did not blame the man, whoever he was, that shot him."

John Adams and Josiah Quincy defended the soldiers. Adams' speech to the jury was a fine specimen of forensic oratory. Judges Trowbridge and Oliver charged the jury in favor of the prisoners. Oliver's charge was particularly severe against the townspeople. The jury acquitted all the soldiers of murder; but returned an illogical verdict of manslaughter against two of them. These two were burnt on the hand in court and discharged.

In discharging Captain Preston, Chief Justice Lynde said: "Happy am I to find, after strict examination, the conduct of the prisoner appear in so fair a light; yet I feel myself deeply affected that this affair turns out so much to the disgrace of every person concerned against him, and so much to the shame of the town in general."

Page 67. Boston Port Bill.

It was the Boston "Tea Party" that provoked the retaliatory measures on the part of the British government which were the immediate cause of the war. It had also the effect in America of bringing the colonies closer together as one body in opposition. In April, 1770, the ministry removed all the taxes that had been imposed in 1767 under Townshend, except a duty of three pence (six cents) a pound on tea, which meant a revenue of only about 80 pounds a year, altho it cost the government a far larger sum to collect it.

The East India Company, in the meantime, had been deprived of its market for a large quantity of tea which it had stored up; and the government, to relieve it of its difficulties, ordered the payment to the company of a drawback of all the duties. In this way the price of tea would have been lower in America than anywhere else; but the ministry, with characteristic shortsighted obstinacy, while foregoing all the advantages of taxation, insisted on making the colonists acknowledge its right to tax by paying the duty first and then having it refunded to them.

The attitude of the Colonials now showed clearly that it was an underlying principle in taxation for which they were struggling. They refused to admit the cargoes of tea which were sent to America under the new regulations, and most of the ships returned home. When, however, the governor at Boston refused to allow the three tea-laden vessels that had been sent to that port to clear for Europe, an exasperated band of men disguised as Indians boarded the vessels and threw the tea into the harbor.

When the ministry was informed of this act of violence, and of the burning of the Gaspee, (a royal war vessel which had run ashore on the Rhode Island coast while in pursuit of a colonial vessel which had violated the Navigation Acts, and had been burned by the provincials) it took its last fatal steps in chastising the colonies for contumacy and asserting the dignity of the king's government. What is known as Boston Port Bill closed Boston harbor until the tea should have been paid for and due submission tendered. The Act vested the appointment of the governor, council and sheriffs (who were to select juries) in the crown; town meetings, except by consent of the governor, were suppressed; the four regiments sent out to support the new military governor, General Gage, were to be billeted on the town of Boston; and magistrates, officers and soldiers who should be indicted under colonial laws, were to be sent for trial to Nova Scotia or Great Britain. The Quebec Act (see introductory note) completed the ministry's coercive measures.

There was now small need of debating further the legal and technical questions involved in colonial versus parliamentary privileges. The Charter of Massachusetts had been outraged. There was no longer any guarantee of the stability of colonial institutions; while in the Quebec Act the sensitive colonials saw an attempt to set up Roman Catholicism in a territory to which the colonials had long aspired.

The first Continental Congress now met, stated its grievances, framed loyal addresses to the king and the people of Great Britain, and drew up the "Articles of Association," which were to be signed by the people and enforced by Committees of Safety, binding the signers to a cessation of trade with Great Britain. At the same time the congress passed a resolution approving the resistance of Massachusetts and asserting that, should an attempt be made to execute the parliamentary measures by force, all America ought to support Massachusetts in her opposition.

Governor Gage did attempt to execute the obnoxious Acts of Parliament by force. The existing government of Massachusetts then came to an end, and the people elected a provincial congress, which began to raise troops. Gage fortified Boston, and sent a detachment of troops to Lexington and Concord to seize military stores that had been collected there for the provincial forces. In two famous engagements the royal troops with a heavy loss were driven back to Boston, and the colonials then began the seige of Boston. The conditions for general resistance set forth in the resolution of the first Congress had been fulfilled. The flame spread rapidly to the other colonies. The royal governments collapsed one after another, and the lower houses of the provincial legislatures assumed the functions of government under the title of 'Provincial Congresses."

The second Continental Congress met on the same day on which Ethan Allen surprised Ticonderoga (May 10) in pursuance of a vote of the first congress that a second should meet in May, 1775, if grievances had not previously been redressed. It was composed of delegates, who were originally elected merely for the purpose of consulting the representatives of the other colonies, and who were expected to report back for instructions to the popular conventions which had appointed them; but the congress rapidly took to itself all the functions of a supreme central government. It voted an army and a small navy, appointed a

"Committee of Correspondence with our friends abroad," for tentative negotiations with foreign powers; passed trade regulations; issued $2,000,000 in paper currency and called for subscriptions to a national loan.

Thus did a congress, representing all the colonies, come to the support of Massachusetts in her resistance to royal aggression; and the Revolutionary War actually begin.

Page 69. Hancock.

John Hancock has three claims to distinction in American history. He was president of the second continental congress, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and the first governor of the state of Massachusetts.

He inherited what in his day was a great fortune and actively engaged in business—so actively, indeed, that the outbreak of the Revolutionary War found him threatened with a royal persecution for smuggling. He was especially active in the Whig agitation against England, and governor Gage in the general pardon which he issued after the affrays at Lexington and Concord excepted him and Samuel Adams, saying: "Their offenses are of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." He served during a part of the war as major-general of Massachusetts militia. He was repeatedly elected governor of his native state.

Page 85. Flora Macdonald.

Flora Macdonald is one of Scotland's heroines, and a great deal of romance has collected around her name. After the battle of Culloden, in which the Highlanders under the "Young Pretender" (see note, Vol. VII, page 43) were defeated by the Duke of Cumberland, and pursued by him with such relentless slaughter as to gain him the title of the "Butcher," the young prince escaped, but would have fallen into the hands of the English had not Flora Mac-

donald disguised him as "Betty Burke," her Irish servant maid, and conducted him safely to a spot whence he made his way to the continent.

She was imprisoned for a year for this act, but her bravery and devotion had made her a popular heroine, and her captivity was enlivened by a series of fêtes. She is falsely represented as having been in love with Prince Charles. The celebrated French marshal, Étienne Macdonald of Napoleon's time, Duke of Taranto, belonged to the same family as Flora Macdonald.

Page 109. Israel Putnam.

See Vol. VIII, page 407.

Page 110. Joseph Warren.

Joseph Warren was one of the most influential among the patriots who brought on the Revolution. The "Suffolk Resolves," stating the extreme position of the colonists against Great Britain, were his work. He was appointed president *pro tem* of the provincial congress of Massachusetts in 1775. He opposed the fortification of Bunker Hill, against a majority of the council, on the ground that the supply of ammunition was insufficient. He served at Bunker Hill as a volunteer, refusing the chief command.

Page 118. Bunker Hill.

The battle of Bunker Hill, tho a military defeat for the Americans and a considerable advantage to the British, to whom it secured Boston for the time being, in its essential results was one of those victories in which the defeated side becomes the gainer. The gallant conduct of the Americans fired the country with enthusiasm and confidence, and everywhere stiffened resistance. The American loss was 450 out of 1,500; the British 1,054 out of 2,500. Colonel William Prescott is usually credited with the chief com-

mand on the American side, tho the admirers of the intrepid Israel Putnam attribute that distinction to him. Bunker Hill took place the day that Washington was commissioned commander-in-chief of the "American Continental Army," and when he arrived before Boston he brought with him commissions for four major-generals,—Putnam, Schuyler, Ward and Lee; an adjutant-general, Gates; and eight brigadiers.

Page 120. English Sentiment Toward the War.

Bunker Hill was fought on June 17, 1775; but it was not until July of that year that congress sent Richard Penn with its last petition, called the "Olive Branch Petition," to George III, still protesting the loyalty of the colonies and praying for a repeal of the acts which had brought on resistance. The king refused to receive the petition and proclaimed the Americans rebels. When the king took this attitude, many English army officers resigned their commissions rather than serve against the Americans, and when the subservient "king's friends" in parliament voted 25,000 troops most of them had to be hired in Germany.

In the great towns, particularly in those ports which had acquired more familiarity with American affairs and sentiment through commerce than was general in England at that time, the feeling in favor of the colonials was intensely strong and not a few people wore mourning for those killed at Lexington.

The bitterness always engendered by war naturally chilled that sympathy for the colonials which, at the beginning of the conflict, had been general throughout England except among the corrupt official classes; but the ministers realized throughout the war that the thinking part of the nation regarded the American cause as identical in principle with the ancient struggle of the English commons for popular rights against the crown. It is also worthy of note that the three most prominent English generals during the war, Howe, Burgoyne and Cornwallis, had previously been

opponents of the colonial policy of the government. Howe was especially outspoken in his condemnation of it; and Burgoyne, as a member of parliament, spoke against it.

Page 122. Discipline.

General Montgomery's statement that "all his privates were generals but not soldiers," gives a graphic view of the condition of the newly levied American forces. In 1777 John Adams wrote that the officers of the army "quarrel like cats and dogs. They worry one another like mastiffs, scrambling for rank and pay like apes for nuts."

Page 127. Thomas Paine.

This remarkable man was born in England in 1737. Up to the age of thirty-seven, when, on the advice of Benjamin Franklin, he emigrated to America, he had been employed in various inferior capacities.

Arrived in Philadelphia, he at once obtained employment as a journalist and threw himself heart and soul into the cause of the patriot party. In his pamphlet, "Common Sense," he argued that the American colonists owed no real allegiance to the English king. The influence of this pamphlet in invigorating hesitating patriots was immense.

He became conspicuous in public life and in 1781 was sent to France with Colonel Laurens on a successful mission for the negotiation of a loan. In 1782 congress voted him $800 on condition that he should continue his literary activity on behalf of the American cause. Pennsylvania and New York also treated him liberally and congress in 1785 voted him $3,000 more. In 1787 he went to London, where he was lionized by the friends of America, particularly by Edmund Burke whom, however, he treated very shabbily in his pamphlet, "The Rights of Man." For this pamphlet, which attacked the English constitution, he was banished

from England, but he had already gone to France, where he was most enthusiastically received and elected to the legislature.

The French Revolution was then in progress and he displayed heroic qualities in voting against the execution of the king, whom he offered a temporary asylum in America. When his party, the noble and unfortunate Girondists, fell, he was imprisoned for ten months and narrowly escaped the guillotine. He was released and restored to his seat in 1795. While in prison he wrote a large part of his famous "Age of Reason," an exposition of free-thinking principles. This treatise associated the name of Tom Paine with the works of the evil one in the minds of the devout Americans of that day, and when he returned to America in 1802 he found that, while his great political services had not been forgotten, his religious doctrines had brought him into disrepute. The chief fault found with the "Age of Reason" to-day, however, is the amount of ignorance it displays: Paine was not conspicuous for learning.

A monument marks his empty grave in New Rochelle, his body having been exhumed and taken to his native land in 1819 by William Cobbett, the famous English political writer.

Page 132. Jefferson—Adams.

It is a most extraordinary coincidence that John Adams and Thomas Jefferson should have both died on July 4th, 1826, on the fiftieth anniversary of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

Page 135. Declaration of Independence.

The preamble of the Declaration of Independence is hardly more than a brief statement of the principles set forth in John Locke's great "Essay on Government" (see

note, Vol. VI, page 161) whence most of the patriots of the revolutionary period drew their inspiration.

It is interesting to note Jefferson's unconscious repetition of Locke's exact words in the phrase "But when a long train of abuses." Jefferson, however, disclaimed any pretense of originality in preparing this famous document. Indeed, the ideas it sets forth had long been current in America.

Hart, in his "Formation of the Union," says that "Of the twenty-nine specifications of oppressive acts enumerated by the Declaration of Independence, not more than five were manifestly illegal according to the prevailing system of English law."

The Declaration of Independence was adopted on July 4th, 1776; but, contrary to the general misconception, the engrossed parchment copy of it was not signed until August 2d. Benjamin Franklin's irrepressible humor is said to have broken out after the members of the congress had solemnly placed their signatures upon the fateful document. "We must all hang together," said one member, deeply impressed by the gravity of the situation. "Yes," replied Franklin, "or we shall all hang separately."

It is worth while to note, in passing, that the Declaration states that "all men are created equal," a saying that is often challenged. But the saying can be defended. Of course no one can say that men are equal in their natural endowments, yet they are equal in their natural rights. Men's heads are not on the same level, but their feet should be on the same floor. The Declaration stands for equality of opportunity.

Page 142. Hessians.

It was the general distaste among Englishmen for the American war that forced George III. to turn to Germany for mercenary troops, and not that England was unable to raise sufficient men to carry it on; for in 1780, when a

general European war had developed out of the American conflict, she put no less than 314,000 troops into the field. There were never more than 40,000 troops in British pay in America during the war.

The use of mercenaries in this war was not an isolated case. The Greeks were famed as mercenaries in ancient times, as students of Xenophon will recall. During the middle ages, warfare, especially in Italy, was carried on by mercenaries to a great extent. Switzerland achieved an unenviable notoriety by the wholesale traffic in her splendid fighting sons. The Swiss guard of the Vatican is a relic of the days when Swiss regiments would follow any colors and support any cause for hire.

The petty German princes, at that day among the most unprincipled of rulers, were very ready to accept English gold in payment for soldiery. It may be said of the Hessians that, tho an infamous compact brought them to America, they proved to be good soldiers.

The fact that George III., as a German by parentage and king of Hanover, was quite as much a German sovereign as an English, made the use of the Hessians in the American war seem perfectly natural to the British. But it was a serious blunder on their part, for the employment of foreigners against them enraged the Americans, who had previously regarded the conflict as a civil war, and inclined them to the policy of fighting the Hessians with the French.

Page 160. Preliminary sketch of the Revolutionary War.

To enable the student to hold clearly in mind the events of the war as the story proceeds, we give the following brief survey of its principal incidents:

By fortifying Dorchester Heights, Washington forced the evacuation of Boston in 1776 after a siege of eleven months, and Howe conveyed his army and a large number of loyalists to Halifax, N. S.

In the meantime, two American expeditions against Canada, one under Montgomery, by way of Lake Champlain, and another and more heroic one through Maine under Benedict Arnold, had come to grief (1775) at Quebec, and Canada was cleared by Sir Guy Carleton.

In 1776 a large new British force under Sir William Howe arrived at New York, while another division threatened, and was repulsed from, Charleston.

On August 27th, after the long delay which characterized Howe's generalship, the Americans were assaulted and defeated at the battle of Long Island, and only Howe's sluggishness permitted the retreat of Washington's forces to Manhattan Island and thence, later, after the successful battle of Harlem Heights, to New Jersey.

The British capture by storm, in November, 1776, of Fort Washington, with the garrison of 2,600 men which had been left on Manhattan Island, was one of the disasters of the war on the American side.

The British under Cornwallis followed Washington on his retreat across New Jersey. The fortunes of the Revolution were now at their lowest ebb, but while the British were waiting for the Delaware to freeze over in order to continue their march to Philadelphia, and their force meanwhile had been weakened, Washington suddenly deranged their plans by crossing the Delaware in the floating ice and making his brilliant stroke at Trenton, followed by the successful action at Princeton, after which the British fell back on New York for the remainder of the winter.

The British campaign of 1777 contemplated the capture of Philadelphia and the division of the American colonies in twain by the occupation of the line of the Hudson river and Lake Champlain. With the greater part of the British forces, Howe proceeded by water to the Chesapeake and marched across the peninsula to the Delaware. The occupation of Philadelphia followed the defeat of the Americans at Brandywine Creek. The capture of Phila-

delphia was a singularly bad piece of strategy, for it divided the British forces when they should have been concentrated to cooperate with Burgoyne (tho Burgoyne's task was probably an impossible one under any circumstances), in his expedition from Canada down the Hudson. Burgoyne finally was hemmed in at Saratoga and, with his entire army, surrendered in October, 1777. Howe had been ordered to go north and help Burgoyne, but the order from London failed to reach him and he went to Philadelphia instead.

The most important result of this victory was the alliance with France, which was impressed now with the possibility of American success. The alliance prompted Lord North's belated proposal to grant to the colonies everything but actual independence.

After a repulse at Germantown, Washington went into winter quarters, and while Howe kept his forces comfortably inactive at Philadelphia, the Americans suffered frightful privations at Valley Forge.

In the campaign of 1778 the American forces became Franco-American, owing to the accession of a French fleet and a division of troops. Sir Henry Clinton, who had succeeded Howe, abandoned Philadelphia and retired to New York, the indecisive engagement at Monmouth taking place on the march.

Hostilities were then transferred to the South. Savannah (in 1779) and Charleston (in 1780) were captured, (the latter place with its garrison of 7,000 men, perhaps the greatest American disaster of the war), lower Georgia was reduced and South Carolina overrun.

General Gates, who was appointed to the American command in the South, was badly defeated at Camden by Cornwallis. The defeat at King's Mountain (1780) checked a series of British successes; and General Greene, who superseded Gates in December, 1780, tho his militia were defeated at Guilford Court House, Hobkirk's Hill and

Eutaw Springs, carried on the campaign with such vigor and strategic skill that the British were forced back to the coast and penned up at Wilmington, Charleston and Savannah. The brilliant and decisive American victory of the Cowpens in 1781 was an offset to the British successes.

Clinton had previously withdrawn to New York, and he ordered Cornwallis, after his baffled pursuit of Lafayette from Petersburg, to fall back to Yorktown. Cornwallis fortified himself. The failure of Admiral Rodney, who was on bad terms with Clinton, to send an adequate fleet from the West Indies to cope with de Grasse enabled the French admiral to cut off Cornwallis from retreat by water. In April, 1782, too late to affect the issue of the American War, Rodney in a great battle off Dominica destroyed de Grasse's fleet and took him prisoner.

Washington cleverly made Clinton believe the allied American and French armies were about to besiege New York, when they were really well on their way to Yorktown. Cornwallis, completely trapped, surrendered in October, 1781. With Yorktown, the war abruptly and gloriously terminated.

Page 162. King's College.

"King's College" is now "Columbia University."

Page 165. The Howes.

The Howes referred to were Richard, Earl Howe, the famous admiral; and, William, general Viscount Howe, the successor of Gage as commander-in-chief in America; both brothers of Lord Howe who had been killed at Ticonderoga. (Vol. VIII, page 403, and Note.)

Page 171. Greene.

Nathanael Greene, tho he had the misfortune to be almost invariably beaten, was one of the best commanders on the American side during the war; for he was cautious yet

energetic, and the enemy in defeating him usually suffered so severely that his defeats in their strategic effects often amounted to victories. He specially distinguished himself in the southern campaign against Cornwallis. Greene was born in Rhode Island, where he was held in honor after the war.

Page 198. Lee.

Charles Lee was an English soldier of fortune who had distinguished himself in the Polish army against the Turks, and particularly in Portugal against Spain. He became the senior major-general under Washington after Ward's resignation. (See page 303.)

Page 199. Cornwallis.

It is stated that Lord North on considering the qualifications of his generals for command, said that he did not know whether they would frighten the Americans or not, but they had certainly frightened him. The same evil system which had filled parliament with "the king's friends" had filled the army with friends and relatives of the "king's friends," aristocratic blockheads who could die heroically, as one hundred and fifty-seven of them did at Bunker Hill, but who for the most part were more valuable to the army dead than alive. There was here and there no doubt a possible Wolfe among them, but there was no longer a Pitt to single them out.

Lord Cornwallis, however, was far from being an incompetent officer, and tho a royal favorite, he strongly opposed the policy which brought about the war. He inflicted a number of sharp defeats on the Americans, including Brandywine, in which he bore the principal part; Camden, where with 2,000 men he beat Gates with 3,000; and Guilford Court House. He showed energy and capacity against Washington and Rochambeau when trapped at Yorktown.

He was greatly handicapped by the incompetence of his two superiors, Howe and Clinton. (See Note, page 423.)

Page 205. Whig and Tory.

These names were borrowed from England and applied in America to the two great parties into which the country was divided, according to their slight resemblance to the political divisions in the mother country.

In England the Tories were the conservative party, especially favorable to royalty and aristocracy. They had long been upholders of the exiled Stuarts and used to drink to "the King across the water," by passing their wine-glasses across a glass of water when the king's health was called for. When George III., a native born prince, came to the throne, they generally returned to their allegiance.

The Whigs were the party that had driven out the Stuarts and established the Protestant succession to the throne in the house of Hanover. They originally stood for democratic reform.

In America the royalists were called Tories and the patriot party Whigs. The name Whig was revived in 1834 as the title of the political party opposed to the Democrats.

Page 212. Frederick the Great.

If Frederick the Great was sincere in his estimate of Washington's generalship, as recorded on this page, the saying was a rare tribute; for in 1757, with his capital in the hands of the enemy, facing a Russian army on the east, an Austrian on the south, and a French on the west, in the space of thirty days Frederick crushed the French army, which outnumbered his own, two to one, at Rossbach; and, wheeling upon the Austrians, sixty thousand strong, at Leuthen, with forty thousand Prussians, he killed, wounded and captured twenty-seven thousand of them and took one hundred guns. Eight months later, having disposed of France and Austria, he met the bloodthirsty

Russians at Zorndorf, and, with 37,000 men he routed their army of 50,000 with terrible slaughter.

Page 214. Brant.

Joseph Brant (Thayendanega) was a Mohawk leader who in the Revolution bore the title of captain, conferred upon him by the English (see note, Five Nations, Vol. VII, page 228). His sister, Mollie Brant, became the wife (so called) of Sir William Johnson (see Note, Vol. VIII, page 326), and the mother of eight of his children. Johnson secured Brant an excellent education, and he became so proficient that in 1774 he was able to act as secretary to Colonel Guy Johnson, Sir William's successor as superintendent of Indian affairs. He rendered important services to the English in the French and Indian and the Revolutionary wars.

Tho he led many fierce raids on the frontier of New York and took part in the Cherry Valley and Minisink massacres, he exerted himself to prevent the customary cruelties of his people. An oft-repeated error, encouraged by Campbell's poem, "Gertrude of Wyoming," is the statement that he was present at the Wyoming massacre.

He was entertained by many prominent people during his visit in 1786 to England, where he collected money to build the first Episcopal church in Upper Canada. A colossal monument perpetuates the memory of this remarkable Indian at Brantford, Ontario. His portrait was painted by Romney during his first visit to England in 1776.

Page 223. Steuben.

Baron Steuben's services to the Revolution were of the highest order. Shortly after he arrived, he wrote to a Prussian friend regarding the American volunteers, "You say to your soldier, 'Do this,' and he doeth it; but I am obliged to say to mine, 'This is the reason why you ought to do that,' and then he does it." As instructor-general of the continental army he introduced into it some of that dis-

cipline which had made the Prussian army under Frederick the Great the most efficient military machine in the world; and to his training no small part of the final success of the American arms is due. After the war several states made him grants of land and congress voted him $2,400.

Page 223. Kosciusko.

Thaddeus Kosciusko is one of the noblest figures in Poland's melancholy history. A sad love affair sent him to America, where, with the rank of colonel in the Revolutionary army, he rendered important services in the Saratoga and Southern campaign.

He was appointed commander-in-chief of the Polish revolutionary army in the revolt against the second partition of Poland, and gained several successes tho he was at last defeated and captured. When released he refused to take back his sword from the Russian emperor, saying, "I have no more need of a sword, as I have no longer a country." The Emperor Alexander placed his remains beside those of the great Polish king, John Sobieski.

Page 223. Pulaski.

Casimir Pulaski was a Polish patriot who had been forced to flee his country. Coming to America in 1777, he served as a volunteer in the Revolutionary army, and was appointed a brigadier-general for gallantry at the battle of the Brandywine. In 1778 he organized a cavalry contingent, called Pulaski's Legion, with which he served in South Carolina. At the siege of Savannah he was mortally wounded while in command of the American and French cavalry.

Page 223. DeKalb.

"Baron" DeKalb was a Bavarian who had reached the rank of brigadier-general in the French army before he was sent by France in 1768 on a secret mission to the American colonies. In 1777 he returned to America with

Lafayette and, volunteering his services, received a commission as major-general. He was mortally wounded at the battle of Camden in 1780. His title was self-conferred.

Page 223. Lafayette.

The marquis of Lafayette inherited a great fortune. His own family was of high rank and he married a daughter of the duke of Ayen. His prospects at the French court were brilliant, but captivated by the principles of the American revolution, he offered himself and his fortune to the young republic. His American experience was but the prelude to his career in his own country. (See Note, page 409.)

Page 225. Congress and Lafayette.

Lord North could hardly have appointed a major-general on any slighter pretext that that of "zeal, illustrious family and connection."

Page 227. Burgoyne.

John Burgoyne owed his advancement in the army to his elopement with the daughter of the Earl of Derby. He however had displayed military gifts by his surprise and capture of Alcantara in Portugal in 1762.

It may be mentioned that the respective forces at the surrender at Saratoga are variously estimated. The American estimate is 5,804 British and 10,817 American. The British estimate is 3,500 British and 20,000 Americans. After Burgoyne's return to England, he was forced to resign all his appointments, tho he was later made commander-in-chief in Ireland. After his retirement he devoted himself to literature and achieved considerable success as a dramatist.

Page 297. Mischianza.

The Mischianza was an elaborate fête in honor of Sir William Howe, given in Philadelphia on the occasion of

his retirement from the chief command of the army in favor of Sir Henry Clinton. It lasted twelve hours and consisted of spectacular performances, a dinner and a dance. The unfortunate Major André was active in its preparation. "It is not General Howe that has taken Philadelphia: it is Philadelphia that has taken General Howe," said Franklin, in allusion to the festivities of the English army following its occupation of that city.

Page 341. Paul Jones.

This famous man, who was born in Scotland in 1747, is still regarded by many of his British compatriots as a pirate. He was, however, regularly commissioned by the American government as a naval officer. He is credited with having been the first man to raise the stars and stripes: this occurred on his vessel the *Ranger* in 1777. He fought his most famous battle off Flamborough Head as commodore of a squadron of three vessels, against two powerful English men-of-war which were conveying a large fleet of merchantmen.

In the course of this action he lashed his ship, the *Bonhomme Richard* (the *Poor Richard*, so named as a compliment to Benjamin Franklin) to the *Serapis*. After three hours of desperate fighting the *Serapis* surrendered, the *Bonhomme Richard* being so badly damaged that she sank two days later. The battle was fought by moonlight in the presence of thousands of spectators, and is one of the most remarkable and dramatic of minor naval actions.

In 1788 he transferred his services first to France and then to Russia. In the service of Russia as rear-admiral, he served with credit against the Turks, but resigned on account of jealousy and intrigue. He died in Paris in 1792, his funeral being attended by a deputation from the Legislative Assembly.

In 1905 the place of his burial was located with some difficulty, and his remains were removed to America with

great pomp, honor being paid to his memory as founder of the American navy.

Professor Laughton, the English naval historian, makes the following estimate of him: "A man of distinguished talent and originality; a thorough seaman, and of the most determined and ferocious courage. On the other hand, his vanity was excessive, and his moral character may be summed up in one word—detestable."

Page 343. Rochambeau.

The Count of Rochambeau had risen to the rank of lieutenant-general in the French army before he was sent to America in command of 6,000 regular soldiers to assist the Americans.

He had seen a great deal of service in the war of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War, distinguishing himself in the expedition by which France took Minorca from the British. He arrived in America in 1780, but the English blockaded the fleet which had accompanied his army in Narragansett Bay, and it was a year before his forces were released.

He at once placed himself and his troops entirely under command of Washington, who was able with their help to force the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. Returning to France with the thanks of the nation, he was made a marshal. He sympathized with the French Revolution at first, and commanded one of the armies of the Revolutionary government; but fell a victim to the rage of the madmen who ruled France during the Reign of Terror and narrowly escaped the guillotine. Napoleon restored him to his rank and estates.

Page 353. Lord Rawdon.

Lord Rawdon (Francis Rawdon-Hastings) is better known in English history as the Marquis of Hastings, the title conferred upon him for his great services as governor-gen-

eral of India, 1813-1821. His administration was signalized by the winning over, after a fierce war, of the warlike mountain tribes, the Goorkhas, who now furnish the British army in India with ten regiments renowned for their loyalty and fighting qualities.

Page 380. Benedict Arnold.

Arnold received a brigadier-general's commission in the British army and about $30,000 in money for his treason. In 1780 he commanded a pillaging expedition up the James river, and in 1781 his troops burned New London, Conn. In the same year he went to England and later lived in St. John, New Brunswick. Wherever he went he met the universal contempt which is the traitor's fate, and the British government refused to entrust him with military service in the war with France. He died in London in 1801, his mind darkened by melancholy. Several of his sons became officers in the British army. One of them rose to the rank of lieutenant-general and was made a knight for his services.

Page 382. Major André.

One of the most pathetic incidents of the war was the execution of Major André in accordance with remorseless military law. André was witty and gifted as a writer and musician, strikingly handsome in person, and winning in character and manners. He wrote gracefully, and some of his topical verses were very popular among the English officers. He died with great fortitude. The remarks upon the justifiability of his execution in the text are correct. They equally excuse the English for the death of Nathan Hale. André is buried in Westminster Abbey.

Page 402. Tories.

It must not be forgotten that the Tory, or Loyalist, element during the Revolution was large. Many historians

state that the patriot party was actually in a minority, as compared with the Tories, and that very large portion of the population which cared little which way the issue turned.

The Loyalists were particularly strong and active in South Carolina, Pennsylvania, New York, and in parts of Massachusetts. Several regiments in the royal forces were comprised of Loyalists.

The famous American scientist, Benjamin Thompson (Count Rumford) who commanded the "King's American Dragoons" was the most distinguished of the Loyalists. They were treated with great harshness after the war and thousands of them were driven to Canada, where they called themselves United Empire Loyalists.

The strong attachment of English-speaking Canadians to Great Britain and their decided coldness toward the United States is due in no small measure to Loyalist traditions.

Page 409. Lafayette.

Having contributed so notably to the success of the American arms, Lafayette returned to France, but revisited this country in 1784. In 1789 he was elected a deputy to the states general, with the convocation of which the grim work of the French revolution began. He was appointed commander-in-chief of the National Guard, and, for a time was the most conspicuous figure in the revolutionary party. His moderation, however, soon gained him the enmity of both the royalists and the extreme republicans, and his influence rapidly declined. When war broke out against Austria and Prussia he commanded a French army and won several victories. The extremists having gained power, he went to Paris and endeavored to check their excesses; but he found his life threatened and was shortly afterward forced to abandon the army of which he was

in command and fled to Flanders, where the Austrians cruelly imprisoned him.

Napoleon released him, but he remained steadfast in his republican principles. He figured again in the revolution of 1830 (see Note on History of France, Vol. IV, page 288). His visit to the United States in 1824 on the invitation of congress was the signal for a remarkable outburst of popular favor. Congress voted him $200,000 and a grant of land. He died in 1834.

Page 423. Cornwallis.

After the return of Cornwallis to England, a furious controversy took place between him and Sir Henry Clinton as to who was to blame for Yorktown. Cornwallis escaped censure and in 1786 was sent as governor-general and commander-in-chief to India, where his victories over Tippu Sahib restored his tarnished military reputation. On his return he was made a marquis and sent to Ireland to quell the rebellion of 1798. His humane treatment of the rebels gained him the favor of the Irish. He was again governor-general of India in 1804.

Page 425. Carleton.

Sir Guy Carleton was the British commander who thwarted the American campaign against Canada in 1775-76 (see page 121), by defeating Montgomery at Quebec, Arnold on Lake Champlain and by capturing Crown Point. He was superseded in 1772 by the incompetent Burgoyne. After peace was signed with the United States he was created Baron Dorchester. He acquired great popularity in Canada as governor of Quebec.

Page 427. France.

The selfish motives of France in assisting the United States, referred to on this page, are sufficiently obvious, and are of precisely the same order as those which prompted

England to help Austria in the War of the Austrian Succession and Frederick the Great in the Seven Years' War. Neither nation cared much for allies or issues so long as one got an opportunity of injuring the other.

Page 435. Washington.

The English historian Lecky pays the following tribute to Washington:

"Of all the great men in history he was the most invariably judicious, and there is scarcely a rash word or action or judgment recorded of him . . . . In the despondency of long-continued failure, in the elation of sudden success, at times when his soldiers were deserting by hundreds, and when malignant plots were formed against his reputation, amid the constant quarrels, rivalries, and jealousies of his subordinates, in the dark hour of national ingratitude, in the midst of the most universal and intoxicating flattery, he was always the same calm, wise, just, and single-minded man, pursuing the course which he believed to be right, without fear, or favor, or fanaticism, equally free from the passions that spring from interest; and from the passions that spring from imagination. . . . He was in the highest sense of the word a gentleman and a man of honor, and he carried into public life the severest standard of private morals."

Page 436. Hamilton.

Alexander Hamilton was born in the West Indies. His father was a Scotchman and his mother was of Huguenot ancestry. He studied at King's (Columbia) College in New York and attracted attention by his speeches and writings on political affairs at the time of the crisis with Great Britain. In 1777 he became aide-de-camp to Washington with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He served with gallantry through the war, closing his military carreer with a brilliant charge on the redoubts of Yorktown. Becoming

a member of Congress, he served actively in the convention which drew up the federal constitution. As the principal author of the remarkable collection of political papers known as the "Federalist," his influence was potent in securing the adoption of the constitution.

He was the first secretary of the treasury and the founder of the United States Bank. Part of Washington's farewell address was his work. As the chief of the Federal party, he became the opponent of Jefferson and Monroe; but he supported Jefferson for the presidency in preference to Aaron Burr, when the choice between the two lay with the house of representatives. When war with France was threatened, he was commander-in-chief for a short time in 1799, and later declined the chief-justiceship. He again opposed Burr when the latter endeavored to obtain the governorship of New York, and Burr, disappointed and with fancied wrongs rankling in his breast, challenged him to a duel. Hamilton, tho deprecating the practise of dueling, felt himself in honor bound to accept the challenge, but fired in the air when he met Burr at Weehawken, N. J., opposite New York City. Burr's bullet robbed the United States of one of its finest intellects. Time has only added to Hamilton's renown as a statesman and financier.

Page 436. Jefferson.

The Jefferson referred to on this page is Thomas Jefferson, third president of the United States, drafter of the Declaration of Independence, and founder of the Democratic party. He was a Virginian by birth. A lawyer by profession, his practise was very lucrative, until the trouble between the colonies and the mother-country brought him into public life, and in 1769 he entered the Virginia House of Burgesses, where he served until the revolution. His attachment to England was marked; but he strongly maintained colonial rights. Tho possessed of great knowledge, and wielding a trenchant pen, he was deficient as a

speaker and seldom debated. The Declaration of Independence stands practically as he framed it. He has the notable distinction of having introduced into the Virginia legislature the first law ever passed by any legislature granting perfect religious freedom, tho he failed to secure the abolition of slavery. In 1779 he became governor of Virginia in succession to Patrick Henry. His estates suffered from the devastation of war, and he himself almost fell into the hands of the British troops. His administration was unfortunate and it was subjected to harsh, though not altogether just, criticism. The death of his beloved wife (Martha Skelton, who brought him a considerable fortune) inflicted a great grief upon him. In 1785 he accepted an ambassadorship to France. Before leaving for France he served a brief term in congress, where he devised the bill which gave us our present convenient decimal coinage system. His later career will be dealt with in its proper place. (Vol. X.)

QUESTIONS.

Comprising Volume IX

What influence did the French and Indian War have in bringing about the Revolutionary War?

Introductory Note.

Mention the principal causes leading up to the War.

Chapter II and notes.

What were the "Writs of Assistance?" *Page* 29

What was the attitude of the Colonies toward taxation by the British Parliament? *Page* 32

What was the effect of the "Stamp Act?" *Page* 36

Did the Colonies seek independence at the opening of the War? *Page* 41

Narrate the incidents of the so-called Boston Massacre. *Page* 49 *and note.*

What was the Boston Tea Party? *Page* 51

Describe the battles of Lexington and Concord. *Pages* 67-77

Give some account of Patrick Henry and his fiery orations in favor of War. *Page* 37 *and note* 79

Give an account of Flora Macdonald and her family. *Chapter* IV

Describe the Battle of Bunker Hill. *Pages* 106-119

What did the First Continental Congress achieve? *Page* 120 *and note.*

What was the result of the American expedition against Canada? *Page* 121

Who was Thomas Paine and what influence did he have in the Revolutionary Crisis? *Page* 127 *and note.*

Narrate the circumstances attending the Declaration of Independence. *Pages* 130-137 *and note.*

Who were the Hessians and what effect did they have on the war? *Pages* 138-142 *and note.*

Describe the Battle of Long Island. *Pages* 176-184

What were its consequences? *Page* 195

Describe Washington's strategy in crossing the Delaware and state what it effected. *Pages* 202-212

Tell something about the life of Lafayette and describe his coming to America. *Pages* 223-226 *and note.*

Narrate the events leading up to Burgoyne's surrender. *Pages* 227-246

Describe the battles of The Brandywine and Germantown and the taking of Philadelphia by the British. *Pages* 252-267

Relate the story of Valley Forge. *Chapter* XIII

What were the "Articles of Confederation?" *Page* 294

Why was the battle of Monmouth fought? *Page* 304

Describe Lee's treason at Monmouth. *Page* 305

Relate the story of Molly Pitcher. *Page* 311

Describe the Indian Massacres at Wyoming and Cherry Valley. *Chapter* XV

Mention some of Israel Putnam's adventures. *Page* 339

Describe the Southern Campaign of Gates and Greene against Cornwallis and Rawdon.

Pages 353-363 *and Chapter* XVIII

Narrate the story of Benedict Arnold's treason.

Chapter XVII

Describe the investment of Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Chapter XIX

Who conceived the plan of cutting off Cornwallis' retreat? *Page* 409

Describe the drafting and ratification of the Constitution.

Pages 430-432

Describe the death of Washington. *Page* 434

The sketch of the military operations of the Revolutionary War in the note to page 160, in connection with the description of the various battles given in the text, would provide material for a detailed account of the War. The Introductory note, and the various notes on the leading British statesmen concerned with the Revolution, would furnish the basis for a discussion of the American Revolution in its British aspects.

NOTES FOR THE FIFTH COURSE

Volume X

Introductory.

The close of the Revolutionary war left the loosely confederated states in a deplorable condition. They had a feeble and discredited central government, a debt of $38,000,000 ($8,000,000 of which was foreign), together with a financial incubus of $90,000,000 in valueless paper

currency. Congress as constituted by the Articles of Confederation in 1781 was a mere specter of a government whose recommendations might be treated by the several states as they pleased.

The necessity of establishing a central government with well defined powers, if the states were not to dissolve in anarchy and civil war, became evident; and in 1786 Alexander Hamilton took advantage of an interstate commercial convention called to meet at Annapolis, Md., to submit a proposal for remodeling the central government. Following out this suggestion, the Philadelphia convention met with Washington as its president, in 1787.

From a series of compromises over the clash between state rights and federal powers; the relative representation in the national legislature of small states and great states; and between the opponents and upholders of slavery, finally, in 1787 was evolved our federal constitution. A fierce controversy ensued between the federalists, who favored the constitution, and the anti-federalists, who opposed it; but in the following year, the adhesion of the nine states which was necessary to make the constitution effective had been secured, and the new government, with Washington at its head, as first president of the United States, and John Adams as vice-president, came into office April 30, 1789.

During Washington's administration the same conflict of opinion regarding a strong national as against strong state governments gave rise to two rival parties—the federalists, led by Hamilton, who were supporters of the strong national government system, and given to regard the wealthy and aristocratic classes as the proper source of government; and the anti-federalists, or democratic-republicans, who dreaded what they considered the monarchic tendencies of a centralized national government and who, under the consummate leadership of Jefferson, appealed to the people at large for support.

For the three main features of the policy of Washington's first administration, the credit is largely due to the splendid financial talents of Alexander Hamilton, who established a revenue and protective tariff, founded a National bank on the plan of the Bank of England, and funded the national government debt by securing the assumption by the national government of debts incurred by the states during the war.

Washington's second term was a period of great turbulence, public opinion being divided and influenced over the war between England and France. The federalists sympathized with England, and the republicans with France, and Washington was scandalously vilified in the outburst of partisan passion which ensued.

Hamilton's tentative tax of twenty-five cents a gallon on whisky manufactured in the United States brought on the "Whisky Insurrection" of 1794 in Pennsylvania. By suppressing this insurrection the national government displayed its strength and asserted its right to levy taxes within the states. The cession by the northwestern Indians of 25,000 square miles of territory after their defeat by Wayne in 1794; the negotiation of a treaty with Spain securing the right of freely navigating the lower Mississippi; and the admission of the new state of Tennessee were further events of Washington's second administration.

Page 48. Robespierre.

Maximilien Robespierre is most intimately identified with the horrors of the Reign of Terror period of the French Revolution; but in instituting or, more often, countenancing, the frightful massacres which occurred when he was the head of the Committee of Public Safety, which constituted the actual government of France for a time, his motives seem to have been lofty, if the word may be applied to such an ill-balanced visionary.

He came to the front after the death of the great

Mirabeau, the only man who could have kept the revolution within bounds, and, as the leader of the Jacobins, a political club which for a time swayed the national government, became the chief power of the state. Tho in his younger days he had resigned a judgeship rather than pronounce a death sentence, he brought about the execution of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette and secured the passage of a measure empowering juries to condemn without hearing a defense. Thereafter France became a slaughter house. Wishing to establish a new era of virtue and purity, he made the Convention decree that faith in the Supreme Being was a law of the French people; and later he presided as chief-priest at some ridiculous ceremonies of the "Worship of the Supreme Being." This performance awakened derision, and Robespierre, to rid France of all those who were opposed to his policy, prepared a final desperate stroke. The intended victims were too alert and determined for him, however. It was Robespierre himself and many others of his murderous supporters who went to the guillotine; and France breathed freely once again. The character of Robespierre is full of strange contradictions.

Page 51. Holland.

From Holland and France, especially France, the funds with which the Revolutionary war was financed were obtained.

Page 55. John Adams.

John Adams was the second president of the United States. He was a delegate to both the first and second continental congresses and was a prominent leader of the patriot party before the revolution. He was a signer of the Declaration of Independence. In 1778 he was sent to Paris as a commissioner to France, and was active in various diplomatic missions abroad until 1778. He was vice-presi-

dent of the United States from 1789 until 1797, when he became president. In questions affected by foreign relations, he sympathized with England, which brought him into conflict with Jefferson as the leader of the friends of France.

Shortly after Adams' inauguration occurred the affair of the "X. Y. Z. Correspondence," which in brief was an attempt of the French Revolutionary Government, the Directory, to extort a large sum of money from the United States as the price of friendly relations, through its representatives, Pinkney, Marshall and Gerry. The initials X. Y. Z. concealed the names of the French agents engaged in this extraordinary transaction.

A brief war with France in which occurred the capture of the French frigate *Insurgente* by the *Constellation*, broke out in consequence. At that moment Adams' party, the federalists, were powerful and popular, but they wrecked themselves by the ill-advised Alien and Sedition Acts, which were passed in 1798.

These acts were aimed principally at republican journalists, among whom were many foreigners; and gave the government excessive powers in curbing those who assailed the policy of the federalist administration. As an extreme assumption of power by the national government, these acts provoked the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions, setting forth the "strict constructionist" view of the constitution, which represented the union as a "compact" among sovereign states. Adams personally took very little interest in these measures, but the outbreak of indignation attending the incident contributed largely to the overthrow of the federalists in the ensuing election. The strife between Adams and Alexander Hamilton for the leadership of the party also contributd to its downfall.

The close of Adams' administration was marked by his famous "midnight appointments," through which he filled every possible office with federalist appointees up to the

last minute of his term of office. One appointment made by Adams after the defeat of his party at the elections, that of John Marshall to the chief-justiceship, had a profound influence on the development of American government through that great jurist's broad interpretation of the constitution.

After his defeat in the presidential election of 1800, Adams retired into private life, dying in 1826. He was the father of John Quincy Adams, the sixth president.

Page 55. Spoils.

The reason for many of Jefferson's dismissals from office is found in Adams' "midnight appointments" mentioned in the preceding note. Jefferson did not debauch the civil service by strictly partisan appointments as Jackson did later; but he unfortunately established a fatal precedent for so doing.

Page 55. Albert Gallatin.

Gallatin was born in Switzerland, whence he came to America as a young man. As secretary of the Treasury for twelve years under Jefferson and Madison, he achieved a great reputation as a financier. His later career as a diplomat was also notable.

Page 56. Algerians.

Algeria, Morocco, Tunis, Tripoli and Barca in northern Africa are collectively known as the Barbary States. The Moors (see introduction to Volume I), were a mixture of the conquering Arabs and the conquered native population of these states. After their expulsion from Spain, they crossed over to their original seats in Africa, and founded maritime states which existed for centuries largely on piracy upon the commerce of Christian nations. In the sixteenth century several of them fell under Turkish domination; but in the beginning of the eighteenth century the

Dey of Algiers threw off the Turkish authority; tho the principal military forces remained Turkish.

The Christian powers of Europe sent expedition after expedition against them; but their piracies still flourished and many of the European powers entered into treaties with them, agreeing to pay tribute in return for exemption of their commerce from attack.

In colonial times American shipping was protected from their ravages by the British flag, but in 1785 they assailed the commerce of the new republic, and the United States shortly afterwards made treaties with them and paid the same blackmail that they levied on European countries. In 1801 Tripoli demanded larger payments, and an American squadron was sent against them. The principal events of this war (1801-1805) were Decatur's destruction of the captured *Philadelphia* (see notes Decatur and Bainbridge, pages 56, 57), the bombardment of Tripoli, and William Eaton's march across the Libyan Desert and the capture by storm of Derne, the second city of Tripoli in importance.

A second war in 1815 forced Algeria, Tunis and Tripoli to abandon their attacks on American shipping. The next year Lord Exmouth, in consequence of an outrage on the British flag, battered the city of Algiers for nine hours and destroyed the Algerian fleet. In 1817, however, the Algerians were still strong enough to harass the smaller powers of Europe. In 1830, after having plundered Christian powers for three hundred years, they committed an unpardonable sin—the Dey slapped the face of a French consul. Seventeen years of ruthless warfare followed. France finally subjugated Algeria, which is now the principal French colonial possession.

Page 56. Bainbridge.

Captain Bainbridge in 1800 was sent to pay the American tribute to the Dey of Algiers, who forced him to convey an ambassador to Constantinople under the Algerian

flag. As commander of the *Philadelphia* he served in the ensuing war against Algiers, but was captured when his ship ran aground, and kept prisoner with 300 of his men until the close of the war. In the war of 1812 he commanded the *Constitution* in her famous fight with the *Java*. Physically he was an impressive figure.

Page 57. Decatur.

Stephen Decatur was born in Maryland. Lord Nelson pronounced his exploit in burning the *Philadelphia* "the most daring of the age." In 1812 in the *United States* he captured the British frigate *Macedonian*. The English captured him and his flag-ship, the *President*, in 1815, but paroled the same year, he sailed with a squadron to again chastise the Algerian pirates. After a brief conflict he concluded treaties with Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli which put an end to their attacks on American shipping and abolished further attempts to exact tribute. He was mortally wounded in a duel with Commodore James Barron in 1820.

Page 59. Aaron Burr.

Aaron Burr, a grandson of the famous colonial divine, Jonathan Edwards, was born in Newark, N. J., in 1756. He served with some distinction in the Revolution and took part in the "Conway Cabal," which aimed to supplant Washington by Gates in the chief command.

He achieved reputation as a lawyer after the war and became prominent in New York state and national politics. In 1800 he and Thomas Jefferson each received the same number of electoral votes for president. At that time the constitution provided that in such cases the house of representatives, voting by States, should decide between the candidates. Jefferson was chosen, and Burr in accordance with the provision then in force that the second choice for president should become vice-president, took

the latter office. His defeat in 1804 when he ran for governor of New York state prompted him to challenge to a duel Alexander Hamilton (see note Vol. IX, page 436), against whom he had long cherished a bitter personal and partisan hatred. Hamilton was mortally wounded by Burr's first shot.

After this affair Burr was greatly discredited. In the following year (1805) as an outlet to his restless and selfish ambition, he embarked on a quixotic enterprise in the west. The nature of his plans is not exactly known; but he appears to have contemplated the establishment of a new republic west of the Alleghanies, of which he was to be the chief, or of an hereditary empire embracing Texas and Mexico with its capital at New Orleans.

He was arraigned for treason and acquitted after a famous state trial at Richmond in 1807.

During this time and subsequently, he enjoyed the touching devotion of his beautiful and talented daughter Theodosia. In his old age Burr married Madame Jumel, whose mansion (Morris House), overlooking the Harlem River, is now one of New York city's most precious historical relics. He died in 1836, after having spent much of his wife's property.

Page 68. Jay.

John Jay, the first chief justice of the U. S. Supreme Court, is regarded as next to Hamilton among the leaders of the Federalist Party. He was born in New York city, of Huguenot ancestry. His services during the revolutionary period were eminent. He drew up the constitution of New York State in 1777. Some of the famous Federalist papers (see note, Hamilton, Vol. IX, page 436) were from his pen. He was minister to Spain 1780-82; one of the commissioners who negotiated the treaty of peace with England; and secretary for foreign affairs under the Confederation. His name is associated with the famous "Jay Treaty."

During the winter of 1793-94, the United States and England came to the verge of war because of England's refusal to evacuate the posts in the Northwest and to give compensation for slaves carried away by her retiring army. England justified this violation of the treaty by citing infringements of it on the American side. The debts owed by individuals in the colonies to British creditors at the beginning of the war were made payable at its close by the treaty. This clause was not carried out. The loyalists, moreover, whose interests had been feebly referred to in the treaty, had nevertheless been severely used by many of the States.

On the American side, another grievance was England's insistence on the right of searching American ships for English deserters. Matters were approaching a crisis, when Washington, with characteristic moderation, sent Jay to London to make a final effort at adjustment. Jay at last signed a treaty whose publication in America was the signal for a furious outburst of popular wrath. Washington with ironical humor said that he was personally reviled in language that "could scarcely be applied to a Nero, to a notorious defaulter, or even a common pickpocket."

The furor rapidly subsided and the treaty was ratified. The treaty was very one-sided. England agreed to evacuate the Northwestern posts and joint-commissions were to decide the debt and negro indemnity questions; but no mention was made of the right of searching and impressment. In return for the opening of the West India ports to American vessels of not more than seventy tons, the United States agreed to export no molasses, sugar, cotton, coffee or cocoa to any part of the world during the twelve years the treaty was to remain in force. It was this provision which became most obnoxious in America.

Page 76. Commodore Barron.

Commodore James Barron killed Stephen Decatur in a duel (See note, page 57). He challenged Decatur, believing him to be principally responsible for what he considered the persecution which kept him from active service after the *Chesapeake-Leopard* affair. He was badly wounded by Decatur in the affray.

Page 65. Citizen Genet.

Genet came to America in 1793 as minister of the revolutionary French government to induce the United States to declare war against England and to fit out privateers to prey on English commerce. He was enthusiastically received; and in spite of Washington's statesmanlike neutrality proclamation, continued his activity in equipping privateers. He was warned by Jefferson, the secretary of state, to desist; but at last became so insolent as to deny Washington's right to treat with him and demanded an extra session of congress to consider his mission. He was promptly suppressed, and fearing to return to France remained in America. "Citizen" was the ostentatiously democratic title by which the French republicans addressed each other.

Page 94. Robert Fulton.

Fulton was born in Pennsylvania of Irish parents. Tho his education was scanty, he acquired skill as a painter, and by the sale of his paintings was able to purchase a small farm for his widowed mother. At the age of twenty-two he went to England, and studied under the famous American president of the Royal Academy, Benjamin West; but afterward abandoned painting and devoted himself to mechanics, in which he soon made a number of important inventions, among them a submarine torpedo boat.

As early as 1807 he experimented with some success with a small steam boat on the river Seine, near Paris, where

he gained the support of Robert Livingstone, the American minister to France. Returning to New York in 1806, he constructed the *Clermont,* whose passage up the Hudson marked the beginning of the modern era of steam navigation. Constant suits over patents harassed Fulton's closing years.

The popular idea that Fulton was the inventor of the steamboat is erroneous. Fitch and Rumsey preceded him in America. In 1789 a steamer ran at the rate of seven miles an hour on the Firth and Clyde canal in Scotland, and in 1801 the *Charlotte Dundas* was used as a steam towboat on the same waterway. She was abandoned because it was feared that the wash from her paddles would injure the banks of the canal.

It was the Scotchman, James Watt, who made the steam boat possible by his invention in 1783 of an efficient steam engine; and the famous old firm of Boulton & Watt built the engines for the *Clermont.*

The great distinction of demonstrating the commercial possibilities of the steam boat, however, is Fulton's; and the first regularly-plying steam vessel was the *Clermont.*

The first steam war-vessel and first ocean-going steamship, the *Demologos,* was also constructed by Fulton. It is a far cry from the tiny *Clermont,* making 5 miles an hour, to the 30,000-ton Cunarders now building, to be propelled by 60,000 horse-power turbine engines at the rate of 28 miles an hour.

Fulton's success had a great influence in building up the newly acquired Louisiana territory; for within four years steamboats began to ply on the great western rivers, facilitating and stimulating commerce and emigration.

Page 96. Whitney.

Eli Whitney, who in 1793 invented the cotton gin, was born in Massachusets in 1765. When he went to Georgia as a young man he found a patron in Mrs. Nathanael

Green, the widow of the celebrated general. His workshop was broken into and his machine stolen before he could secure a patent for it; and his epoch-making invention brought him little pecuniary reward.

As one slave with Whitney's new saw-gin could clean a thousand pounds of cotton a day, whereas only about six pounds could be cleaned by the old "roller gin," the production of cotton in the South advanced at a phenomenal rate.

The tremendous advance of the British cotton industry which took place about this time on account of the application of steam-power and newly invented machinery to cotton manufacture created a great demand for American cotton, and the exports leaped from 189,000 pounds in 1791 to 21,000,000 in 1801, and about 40,000,000 in 1804. This made slavery increasingly profitable in the cotton growing states and put an end to the hopes of its extinction, for which the prospects had seemed bright about the year 1800.

The cotton industry was responsible in another way for the cleavage between the southern and northern states which eventuated in civil war. The northeastern states early began to take on the industrial complexion which still distinguishes them and consequently advocated a policy which should protect their manufactures against English competition; while the South desired a free-trade policy which should give their cotton access to the profitable English market and supply them with manufactured goods on the most favorable terms.

Page 97. Baltimore.

In 1800 Baltimore, with a population of 26,000, was the third city in the Union. The other "great cities" of that time were: Philadelphia, 70,000; New York, 60,000; Boston, 24,000; Charleston, 20,000. There was no other town of above 8,000 souls.

It was at this period that Mrs. John Adams used the audience room of the White House as a drying room for clothes. Communication between cities was attended by great inconveniencies and dangers, and the roads were in a deplorable state. The sanitary condition of the cities was bad, and yellow fever was a frequent plague even as far north as New York.

Page 131. Causes of the War of 1812.

The remote cause of the War of 1812 may be traced to the same Navigation Laws which formed so important a factor in bringing about the revolutionary war. All colonial nations at that time concurred in excluding foreign shipping from their colonial trade in time of peace, and after the treaty of peace with the United States in 1783, England promptly restricted the West India trade to British ships, and subjected American ships in English ports to various duties and discriminations. A general European war broke out in 1793, as a consequence of the French revolutionary excesses, and from that date until Napoleon's fall in 1815 England and France were continually at war, with but two brief intervals. It is only in the light of this titanic struggle with Napoleon that the relatively insignificant war of 1812 can be properly understood. In this great conflict Napoleon until shortly before his downfall was supreme on land. Most of the continental powers lay writhing at his feet; but England on the sea, by a series of victories such as Copenhagen, St. Vincent, the Nile, and Trafalgar, had completely wrecked the naval power of France, and her allies Spain and Denmark; and the British fleet was supreme the world over. The maritime countries whose trade was thus placed at England's mercy were quite willing that the only neutral nation of any importance, the United States, should carry on the traffic denied to them; and for a time American shipowners grew rich. England, on her side, considered

trade with countries with which she was at war as equivalent to military assistance, and energetically endeavored to suppress it.

Shortly after Napoleon became emperor in 1804, he conceived the plan of invading England; and for that purpose assembled a great army near Boulogne. Lord Nelson, however, kept so close a watch on the fleet intended to transport the army to England that it was never able to leave port, and Napoleon hurled it instead against Austria, and won his most splendid victory at Austerlitz in 1805. The news of this battle killed the younger Pitt, who had made prodigious efforts to bring about a European coalition against Napoleon. The same year, however, Lord Nelson, by the battle of Trafalgar, the greatest naval battle in history, deprived Napoleon of his last military weapon against England. In 1806 Napoleon reduced the kingdom of Prussia to ruins, and from its capital he issued the Berlin Decree inaugurating his "Continental System", by which he hoped to destroy England by shutting her off from all connection with the continent of Europe. The Berlin Decree declared the British Islands to be in a state of blockade. All commerce with them was forbidden. English merchandise might be seized wherever found. No ship coming direct from Great Britain or from a British colony could enter any port. England answered in 1807 with a series of "Orders in Council," by which all harbors controlled by France and her allies in Europe (which included most of continental Europe) and the colonies, as well as of every country with which England was at war and from which English ships were excluded, were declared in a state of blockade and all neutral trade therewith prohibited. It was this measure that most deeply affected the United States. Indeed, it might be contended that Napoleon was the aggressor and more to blame than England; but he was unable to enforce his decrees outside of the countries overrun by his armies or terrified into alliance with him, while

England's command of the sea at once brought her into conflict with the United States, which was then practically the only great neutral power in the world.

To England's "Orders in Council" Napoleon replied with his "Milan Decree," in 1807, and his "Tuileries Decree" in 1808, ordaining that any ship of whatever nation that had been searched by an English vessel, or had submitted to be sent on a voyage to England, or had paid any English duty should be regarded as English and treated accordingly. The same year he issued the "Decree of Fontainebleau," ordering the destruction of all English goods in countries controlled by and allied with France. The "Continental System" brought about Napoleon's ruin, for he undertook his disastrous invasion of Russia largely to punish her for withdrawing from it. England was lucky to escape with the trifling War of 1812.

The other principal cause of the War of 1812 grew out of the Napoleonic struggle. This was England's insistence on the right to search neutral vessels for English deserters and to impress them into her naval service when found. This outrageous policy was dictated by the severe straits in which England found herself during these years of deadly warfare to supply crews for the vast fleets, numbering over a thousand ships, which she was forced to maintain to secure the command of the seas on which her existence depended.

In carrying out this part of her war policy against France, England was high-handed and insolent toward the United States. She seized American ships at the very entrance of American ports and bore off American seamen in scores to serve in her war vessels. At that time it was impossible to distinguish between an American and an Englishman, and English officers assumed that an English-speaking sailor was an Englishman; and if the unfortunate was unable to prove his citizenship he was seized. England, moreover, refused to recognize American naturalization; and

numbers of American seamen at that time were of British birth. It is said that in consequence of this practice there were more American sailors in the British navy from 1802 to 1812 than there were in the American navy.

The United States opposed these intolerable measures first by the Embargo of 1807 which closed up American ports and cut down exports from $49,000,000 in 1807 to $9,000,000 in 1808; then by the Non-Intercourse Law of 1809, which denied trade only with Great Britain and France and their allies and dependents. In 1810 it was ordered that if either France or England should remove its trade restrictions, commerce with the other should be prohibited. Napoleon duped the United States into the announcement that France had withdrawn her decrees; and then seized all the American ships that had thus been lured within his reach. About $10,000,000 worth of property was secured by this haul. England refused to withdraw her Orders in Council because the French Decrees were still executed.

In the new congress of 1811, the war party, led by several able and fiery-spirited young men, chafing under the humiliations to which the country had been subjected, was very strong, and the newly broached plan of the conquest of Canada seemed hopeful. France, however, continued her assaults on American ships, to the great embarrassment of the English war-party. After long delays, president Madison sent his war message to congress, and on June 18 it passed the senate with only six votes to spare. On purely logical grounds there is not much to be said for the war declaration. First, because France had not only committed all the outrages on American shipping within the limited power left her by the British fleet, but had resorted to downright knavery to entrap our vessels. Nor must it be forgotten that if the United States had been able in the war of 1812 to inflict any serious damage upon England, the United States, in common with the rest of the

world, would have suffered by the corresponding increase in power it would have given to the intolerable Napoleon. Second, two days before war was declared England withdrew her Orders in Council, to which end the United States had devoted six years of ineffectual diplomacy. Notification of this withdrawal reached America before war had really begun; but no cessation of hostilities followed. A third reason was that the New England shipowners for whose protection the war was to be waged were so fiercely opposed to the war that secession was threatened. Fourth, war could only expose American shipping to still worse evils than peace. Fifth, it freed from all restraint the Indians, whom the war declaration accused England of stirring up. Lastly, two complaints of the four set forth by the declaration, those referring to the practical blockade of the coast and the impressment of seaman, were new and had not previously been brought forward as a ground for war.

Even when we bear all these things in hand, we can hardly understand why affairs did not reach a crisis long before. It certainly had begun to look as if the Englishman who declared that the Americans could not be kicked into war was a prophet; and had national pride failed to assert itself we should have had cause for shame. The bungling war which followed accomplished nothing; for none of the things which the declaration said we went to war about were mentioned in the treaty which closed it. Nevertheless, the series of brilliant little naval victories which we gained gave a stinging rebuke to English arrogance and formed a balm for the injuries under which we had so long smarted. It, moreover, raised us notably in the respect of the world and contributed powerfully to create national at the expense of sectional patriotism.

Page 244. Letters of Marque.

Letters of Marque are government commissions issued to private persons to fit out at their own expense, vessels,

called privateers, for the purpose of preying upon the commerce of an enemy in time of war. By the Declaration of Paris in 1856, all the powers of Europe except Spain abolished privateering. The United Sstates refused to assent to this measure unless all private property should also be declared exempt from capture by regular war vessels.

Page 247. Relative Forces.

When the relative forces of the American republic of 1812 and the British empire of that period are considered, one has to marvel at the audacity of the United States in declaring war. The American navy consisted of 17 ships and 5,500 men. England, in 1809, had 1,100 ships of all classes, including 240 ships of the line (see following note) manned by 140,000 men.

The United States regular army during the war numbered about 34,000. England had 391,000 regular soldiers and 400,000 militia. The actual disparity, however, was greatly less than the apparent. India alone demanded nearly 200,000 of England's regular troops; her widespread colonies absorbed thousands more, and a large army was fighting the French in Spain. A blockade of all the important hostile ports of Europe absorbed her great fleet.

Page 247. Warships.

In the days of sail, the larger war vessels were divided into two classes, ships-of-the-line, line-of-battle-ships, or briefly "liners," and frigates. The former were heavily built, slow-moving vessels, sometimes of four gun-decks and 130 guns. Corresponding with the modern cruiser were the lighter, swifter sailing, easily maneuvered frigates, seldom carrying more than 44 guns.

The United States had no ships-of-the-line during the war of 1812, but in frigates of the *Constitution* type she

possessed an exceedingly well designed, strongly built and powerful type of frigate. For these vessels the English ships of the corresponding class rarely proved a match. The English frigates in the first place were too lightly armed, the *Guerrière's* shots, for example, rebounded from the sides of the *Constitution*. In the second place the ardent and alert American crews, commanded by daring and skilful men, eager to win a reputation in the short time allotted to each captain by the rotation of commands, were much better than the men whom the English press-gangs swept up to make good the heavy drains of years of constant warfare.

Another and important reason was that English officers and men had been accustomed for years to fight chiefly in general engagements, which were fought by fleets of ships-of-the-line. Frigates, whose duty was that of preying on commerce, cruising for information regarding hostile fleets, and scouting in advance of the ships-of-the-line, when a fleet was under way, rarely took part in battle, confining themselves to duels with vessels of their own class such as took place in the war of 1812. English historians pause to note, not without pride, that "even the little *Leander*," (a 50 gun ship), followed the liners into action at the Nile. Small vessels of the *Frolic*, *Argus* and *Boxer* type, when they accompanied ships-of-the-line into battle, were not fired upon by the liners so long as they took no part in the engagement. English naval authorities, therefore, concentrated their attention on the heavy ships-of-the-line, and upon the maneuvering of large fleets, while the Americans brought the individual frigate in design, equipment and management to an extraordinary pitch of efficiency; and since there were so few of them to man, they were provided with picked and exceptionally well-disciplined crews.

Throughout the war there was nothing to choose between the gallantry, and often the ferocity, with which ships on

both sides fought; but usually a marked superiority on the American side was exhibited in gunnery. The American captains were also, for the most part, superior to the English. Commodore Hull's masterly seamanship in escaping from the British squadron in the three days' chase in July, 1812, and his skilful handling of his fine ship, the *Constitution*, in her battle with the *Guerrière* the following month, distinguished him as the ablest commander of a single ship on either side.

The fact that the English for years had been regarded as invincible on the seas makes our exploits against them seem all the more astounding, while at the same time it partly explains them. The invariable success which the British had so long achieved against the French and Spaniards made them regard all foreign seamen with contempt; and they went into the early actions of the war of 1812 forgetting that since the American of that day was still practically an Englishman, the war was to be a meeting of Greek with Greek. To this overweening confidence was added a fatal lack of gun practise and training in the handling of individual ships. When there was a Nelson in command of a great fleet of towering line-of-battle-ships, searching out as by inspiration the enemy's weak point and dealing crushing blows upon it with the same unerring genius displayed by Napoleon on land, the maneuvering skill of individual ships amounted to little, so long as they fought well where the great admiral placed them. For this reason the British admiralty not only had not paid any attention to the training of individual crews in gunnery, but had actually discouraged it; while we not only designed and built better ships of the frigate type than England, but our captains took great pride in drilling their commands up to a pitch of efficiency that has probably never been equalled on fighting ships under sail.

Page 248. Brock.

Sir Isaac Brock's memory is greatly honored in Canada, where he is known as the "Hero of Upper Canada." He was born in Guernsey (see note on Jersey, Vol. VI, page 151). He proved a capable officer, tho he bought his promotion in the English army, in accordance with a practise existing in England until 1871, by which commissions were sold at a tariff corresponding to grade. Brock was mortally wounded at Queenstown. "Never mind me; push on the York Volunteers" were his dying words. A towering monument marks his burial place on Queenstown Heights; and the town of Brockville, Ontario, perpetuates his name.

Page 262. Sketch of the War of 1812.

The war of 1812 began with an American expedition against Canada from Detroit under Hull. Hull, after an extraordinary proclamation as to his purposes, met with a reverse on the Canadian side of the river and fell back to Detroit, which with 2,500 men he disgracefully surrendered in August to the British and Canadian forces under Brock, numbering 1,300. Fort Dearborn (now Chicago) and Mackinac also fell into the hands of the British. In October and November, 1812, two more attempts were made to invade Canada by crossing the Niagara river, and both failed, tho the American forces of 6,000 were opposed to only 1,000 British. The Americans suffered severe losses in an assault upon Queenstown Heights, General Van Rennselaer surrendering with 2,200 men. The campaign of 1812 was mournfully signalized by the inefficiency of our war department, the incompetence of our generals and the cowardice of our militia. Indeed, throughout the war, the reluctance with which the militia went into action and the alacrity with which they came out were phenomenal. Happily, however, the date of the naval actions between the

Constitution and the *Guerrière*, the *United States* and the *Macedonian*, and the *Constitution* and the *Java* is also 1812.

The campaign of 1813 was a little more creditable. In January the British took Frenchtown, with General Winchester and his force of about 900 men. In April General Dearborn captured York (Toronto) and destroyed the government buildings. General Wilkinson's and Hampton's attempts at invading Canada, however, resulted in disgraceful retreats. An attack by the incompetent British commander-in-chief, Sir George Prevost, on Sackett's Harbor, N. Y., was repulsed by General Jacob Brown. In November, after an action at Chrystler's Farm an American expedition against Montreal was abandoned. In September the Americans gained control of Lake Erie by Perry's famous naval victory, making possible Harrison's invasion of Canada. At the battle of the Thames, Harrison defeated a small number of British under Proctor and an uncertain number of Indians under the famous chief Tecumseh, who was killed. The British in December overran western New York and burned Youngstown, Lewiston and Manchester, in retaliation for the burning of Newark by General McClure, who had abandoned Fort George as the British advanced.

The war took on a new aspect in 1814, owing to the arrival of veteran British troops from England, to the appearance of abler commanders on the American side and to the seasoning of the American troops. In March General Wilkinson, attempting an invasion of Canada, was driven back to Plattsburg. Jacob Brown and Winfield Scott captured Fort Erie and defeated the British at Chippewa; but after the indecisive action at Lundy's Lane the American army withdrew to Fort Erie, which was besieged and gallantly defended, and from which the British were repulsed with severe loss. The evacuation and destruction of Fort Erie by the Americans in November ended the war in the north.

In September Sir George Prevost with a large force in-

vaded the United States, but by the defeat on Lake Champlain of the flotilla which supported his land forces he was forced to retreat after sustaining heavy loss, tho he moved back with unnecessary precipitation.

In August Washington was captured by the British, who were repulsed at Baltimore in September. Meanwhile nearly the whole coast of Maine had fallen into the hands of the enemy.

In the course of the year 1813, defeats and victories alternated on the sea. The overwhelmingly superior English naval forces at last captured or shut up in the harbors along the coast nearly all our ships, and by the end of 1814 we had almost no merchantmen and very few regular war-vessels afloat. The swift-sailing privateers were practically the only vessels bearing our flag to venture abroad; but many of them evaded the British blockading squadrons and inflicted great damage on English shipping. The losses in shipping, however, were about equal—about 1,700 vessels on each side.

In January, 1815, two weeks after peace had been signed at Ghent, in Belgium, General Pakenham, with a fine army of British soldiers, who had just been released by the triumphant close of the Peninsular war against Napoleon, attacked New Orleans. The assault was badly mismanaged, and there was an utter lack of coordination between the various detachments. The British behaved with the utmost gallantry, which made them only the more easily mowed down by Jackson's skilfully entrenched riflemen. Tho the attack on the right bank of the river was successful, the failure on the left bank made necessary the retreat of the assailants with a loss of 2,600. Our well protected troops lost only 8 killed and 13 wounded.

The war, splendid at times, ignominious at others, was on the whole inglorious. In the treaty of Ghent which terminated it, the British refused to make any concession on the questions of neutral trade rights and the impress-

ment of seamen, for which we had gone to war. A mutual restitution of conquests was the chief provision of the treaty. As a matter of fact, however, no more impressments took place. England had learned to respect American naval prowess; and the downfall of Napoleon had done away with the actuating cause of both impressment and interference with neutral trade.

Page 270. Clay.

Henry Clay's part in bringing on the war of 1812 was so great that he may truthfully be said to have forced it by his oratory, his contagious enthusiasm and his overweening confidence in the ease with which Canada might be conquered. He was born in Virginia, but when a young man emigrated to Kentucky, where he practised law and rose to prominence in politics in this new state.

In 1811 he was elected to the national legislature and was at once made speaker. He was the leader of a group of young politicians from the newly settled west, where national sentiment was strong, in contrast with the marked state-loyalty and sectionalism which was traditional in the older states. They therefore were inflamed with anger because of England's insults to the United States, upon which the New Englanders looked complacently. Clay was grievously disappointed by the miscarriages of the war. He was one of the peace commissioners in 1815, and was enthusiastically received on his return from Europe.

Page 270. Calhoun.

John C. Calhoun's principal career belongs to a later period than that covered by this volume, when he devoted his splendid talents to the advocacy of slavery and the exposition of doctrines that brought on the Civil War. In 1812, however, he was an ardent nationalist and a leading member of the war party. He was born in Virginia in

1782, of Scotch-Irish ancestry. His first appearance in congress was made in 1811.

Page 273. Gerry.

Elbridge Gerry was born in Massachusetts. He served in the continental congress; was member of congress from Massachusetts from 1789 to 1793; and was one of the American commissioners to France in 1797, a mission that called out the insulting X. Y. Z. correspondence. (See note on John Adams, page 55.)

He was governor of Massachusetts in 1810 and 1811. His name is disagreeably embalmed in the word "Gerry-mander," on account of his signing, tho apparently disapproving of it, a bill for so cutting up the electoral divisions of Massachusetts as to wipe out the majorities of the political opponents of his party. The map of the rearranged constituencies was said to resemble a salamander, hence Gerry-mander. He was vice president of the United States from 1813 until his death in 1814.

Page 281. Patroons.

Patroon is the Dutch equivalent of *patron,* and the name applied to a few Dutch pioneers who, in return for planting a colony of not less than fifty settlers, were given large tracts of land in New York State, chiefly in the Hudson valley, by the Dutch West India Company, with considerable privileges of government and control of the tenants within their grants. This aristocratic system discouraged immigration to New York.

The largest of the patroonships was Rensselaerswick, founded by Killian Van Rensselaer, the ancestor of General Stephen Van Rensselaer. This estate embraced almost the three present counties of Albany, Rensselaer and Columbia. The patroonship remained in the family of its founder until the middle of the last century. General Van Rennselaer was the eighth "patroon" of the name.

Page 295. Fabius-Marcellus.

From Fabius (Quintus Fabius Maximus, surnamed *Cunctator,* the Delayer), we get our word *Fabian,* in allusion to the policy of delay, caution, and avoidance of a general battle, a policy which, when dictator after the great defeat of the Romans by Hannibal at Lake Trasimenus (B. C., 217), he adopted in order to give Rome time to collect her forces against the terrible Carthaginian. A departure from his astute policy after the expiration of his dictatorship overwhelmed the Romans in the appalling disaster of Cannæ (B. C. 216). Washington is fitly called the "American Fabius."

Marcus Claudius Marcellus, called "the sword of Rome," was the first Roman general to inflict a repulse on Hannibal, whom he held in check in southern Italy from 210 B. C. until killed in a Carthaginian ambuscade in 208. His most famous exploit was the capture of Syracuse after a prolonged siege. Archimedes, the great mathematician and inventor, whose life was more precious than the lives of many generals, perished at this siege, after devoting his great genius to the invention of engineering contrivances for the defense of the city. Of the several versions of the story of his death, the most dramatic (tho probably incorrect) is that which represents him as bending over his geometrical figures on the floor and saying to the Roman soldier who slew him, "Don't disturb my circles."

Page 304. "The Massacre of the River Raisin."

After the defeat of the British at Frenchtown (a village about 22 miles southwest of Detroit), described on page 296, Colonel Lewis was joined by General Winchester, the whole force numbering over 900. This force two days later was attacked and defeated by Colonel Proctor, with 500 British and 600 Indians. All the prisoners who were able to march were taken by Proctor to Malden on the Canadian side of the river. The wounded were left at

Frenchtown in charge of Major Reynolds. The guard was insufficient and the Indians fell upon the American wounded and massacred them. Of the total American force, 297 were killed or otherwise unaccounted for, 537 were captured and 33 escaped.

Page 306. Lake Erie.

The impartial verdict of historians on the battle of Lake Erie is expressed by president Roosevelt, in his admirable work, "The Naval War of 1812." After showing the overwhelming superiority in metal-throwing power of the American guns, paying a tribute to the gallantry displayed by the combatants on both sides, and to the seamanship of the British, he says that "with such odds in our favor it would have been a disgrace to have been beaten." Perry's tactics during the action have evoked excessive praise. His laconic report of the battle: "We have met the enemy and they are ours," is famous, in spite of its rather amusing anti-climax, "two ships, two brigs, one schooner and one sloop." The British flotilla at Lake Erie was largely manned by Canadians, who fought with great bravery and determination.

The author's statement that "England's boasted navies seemed to have become second to the American war-vessels" is a trifle bombastic. The effect of the war of 1812 on England's naval power was practically nothing at all, so far as fighting power is concerned; for as already explained, not a single ship-of-the-line was lost in the course of it; and naval power in those days was reckoned in ships-of-the-line, as it is to-day in battle-ships. The few frigates that England lost, over and above those captured from us, were of small importance. It shocked, bewildered and humiliated Englishmen, accustomed to unvarying naval success, to learn that the Americans could inflict defeat on any ship flying the same flag that had flown at Camperdown, the Baltic, the Nile, St. Vincent, and Trafalgar; but that

humiliation was the chief damage done. One of the thirty-eight ships of the allied French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar, the Spanish four-decker *Santisima Trinidad,* alone carried thirteen more guns than the combined American and British flotillas at Lake Erie. It would have taken nearly twice the entire personnel of the American navy in 1812 to supply the loss in killed and wounded inflicted by Lord Nelson on the French at the single battle of the Nile. These facts in no way detract from the credit of the men who skilfully and valorously fought the spirited little actions of the war of 1812, but they should prevent us from magnifying them unduly.

Page 325. New England.

"From the beginning, the New England states had refused to furnish militia on the call of the general government. . . . The war was very unpopular to the New Englanders because of the great losses to their commerce. . . . The Massachusetts house voted that 'the war is a wanton sacrifice of our best interests.' . . . The general government withdrew garrisons from the New England forts, leaving those states to defend themselves. This attitude was so well understood that during the first month of the war English cruisers had orders not to capture vessels owned in New England."—HART, *Formation of the Union.*

Page 328. Lundy's Lane.

It will be well for the student to know that the Canadian and the American versions of many of the actions of the war of 1812 are at variance. The battle of Lundy's Lane is a case in point. The "Century Dictionary" describes it as a battle in which "the British were repulsed, but afterward returned and kept possession of the field."

An impartial critic stumbling across such an ambiguous description would be inclined to suspect that all was not

well; but he would hardly be prepared for the following pæan from the Canadian historian Kingsford: "The character of this extraordinary conflict, fought in the darkness for nearly three hours, and its triumphal termination in favor of the British, have left this action so stamped in the mind of Canada that it has become an event never to be forgotten. It will remain to us a memory like Crécy or Agincourt."

Page 330. Macdonough.

President Roosevelt, whose opinion of the battle of Lake Erie has already been quoted, speaks in the highest terms of Macdonough's handling of his flotilla at the battle of Lake Champlain, where he says he won the battle by his skill and seamanship against superior force, fought with equal gallantry by the enemy.

For a judicial account of the naval battles of the war of 1812, sympathetic toward the enemy, fairly bestowing praise and blame, and clearly exhibiting the causes of victory and defeat, we recommend President Roosevelt's "The Naval War of 1812" to all students.

Macdonough, then a midshipman, was one of the seventy intrepid sailors who followed Decatur in the famous exploit of burning the *Philadelphia* in Tripoli harbor. For his victory at Plattsburg he was made a captain, then the highest rank in the navy, given a gold medal by congress, and an estate near Plattsburg by the state of Vermont.

Page 333. Constitution and Guerrière.

Since the famous action between the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière* is in many ways typical of all our single-ship victories during the war of 1812, we shall discuss it briefly.

The *Constitution* was in every particular a superior ship to the *Guerrière* (whose foreign name is accounted for by the fact that she was captured from the French), in size,

speed, armament and in number of crew. In guns she carried 32 "long 24's" and 20 "32-lb." carronades against the *Guerrière's* 30 "long 18's" and 2 "long 12's" and 16 "32-lb." carronades. The *Guerrière* was also shorthanded, and her captain magnanimously allowed the pressed Americans he had aboard to go below when the action began. The *Constitution's* staunchness is indicated by her nickname "Old Ironsides," and, as already stated, the English in this and in other actions for some reason or other used such light or bad charges of powder that the *Guerrière's* balls rebounded from the *Constitution's* hull.

British historians also claim that the superior range of the American guns enabled our ships to keep beyond the reach of the fire of the British ships until they had been so badly raked as to be almost disabled.

Nevertheless, when all these considerations are given full weight, the fact remains that the *Guerrière* was beaten much more decisively than her relative inferiority warranted. This was true of all the engagements in which we were victorious during the war. In no case were the respective forces such that the defeated Englishman could have been victorious; but, if the expression is permissible, we were usually more victorious than the disparity of force would indicate. It was usually the superior American gunnery that decided the day, and in action after action the dogged Britons stuck unflinchingly to their mishandled guns while the well-directed American fire wrought destruction and slaughter about them.

It should be borne in mind that on account of wholesale impressments large numbers of American seamen had enjoyed training in British war vessels, if the word "enjoyed" may be applied to anything so fearful as the discipline then enforced on British men-of-war. The statements frequently made by British apologists for the defeats of this period, that the American navy was largely manned by sailors of British birth, is not true, tho the

percentage of British-born seamen was in some cases quite high. On the other hand, in some of our ships there were no British sailors aboard.

Page 338. Chesapeake and Shannon.

The action between the *Chesapeake* and *Shannon* was won by the British for the same reason that we had so often won against them: they had the better captain and the better trained crew.

The *Shannon* was rated as a 38, but carried 52 guns. Captain Broke, her commander, was an able and alert officer and had long taken pride in training his crew in gunnery and seamanship. It thus happened that when he arrived off Boston and sent in a challenge to Captain Lawrence of the *Chesapeake,* then lying in Boston harbor, he had a vessel of rare efficiency. The *Chesapeake,* carrying 50 guns, also rated as a 38, was in a much less satisfactory state. Lawrence (who commanded the *Hornet* when she captured the *Peacock*) was new to his ship, and his crew was newly collected and untrained. He, however, did not need a challenge to spur him to action; and before the challenge arrived he put to sea, fully confident it seems of coming victory.

The battle was fought on June 1, 1813, 18 miles from Boston Light. Many persons went down to Marblehead Neck to witness the capture of the Englishman. The *Shannon* at once raked the *Chesapeake* with a terrific fire, to which the *Chesapeake* responded well. Captain Lawrence fell mortally wounded. The two ships closed, or "fell aboard," in nautical language, and Captain Broke led his boarders in person over the *Chesapeake's* side, fighting gallantly until he received a wound that permanently disabled him. Fifteen minutes from the opening gun the *Chesapeake* struck. The American loss was 61 killed and 85 wounded out of a crew of 379. The British loss was 33 killed and 50 wounded, out of 330. The *Chesapeake* was

towed to Halifax and later did duty in the British navy. Broke was made a Knight of the Bath and became a rear-admiral.

This action was the only one during the war in which an inferior ship was victorious over one of greater power; and the British anoint their naval wounds with it in the same way as we do our military reverses with the battle of New Orleans. The time has now passed away, however, when it is deemed patriotic to ascribe all our victories to superior courage and fighting qualities, and all our enemy's victories to chance or some misfortune on our side without which we should have been gloriously victorious; and we can look back with pride on the exploits on both sides, more especially as English and Americans of that day were much more closely related by blood than the American race of to-day is to its historical ancestors of 1812.

Page 394. Bladensburg.

There is no more unsavory name in our history than Bladensburg, where 7,000 of our militia ran away in disgraceful rout on the first attack of 5,000 British under General Ross. The metal of these warriors and of their commander, General Winder, is exhibited by Winder's order to his artillery before the battle—"When you retreat, take notice that you must retreat by the Georgetown road." The justification offered by the British for burning the national capitol and other public buildings in Washington was our own previous wanton destruction of Newark, and the Canadian government building at York (now Toronto), Ontario.

Page 345. Cockburn.

Sir George Cockburn in 1815 conveyed Napoleon to his island prison of Saint Helena.

Page 422. Monroe Doctrine.

After the fall of Napoleon, a revolutionary spirit manifested itself among the nations of Europe. The "Holy Alliance," originally an idealistic compact between several of the European sovereigns, formed on the suggestion of the czar Alexander I., for the purpose of regulating European affairs in accordance with the dictates of Christianity, was made use of by reactionary politicians to secure the support of the allied monarchs in repressing revolutionary uprisings against monarchy in any of the continental kingdoms. Revolutions in Italy were suppressed in the name of the Holy Alliance; and under the same egis, a French army of 100,000 men invaded Spain in 1822 and put down a liberal movement.

In 1816 the American colonies of Spain revolted and by 1826 they had all achieved their independence. The Spanish king petitioned the monarchs allied by the Holy Alliance to assist him in suppressing the revolts in his American dominions; whereupon the distinguished English statesman Canning, moved by possible disaster to British trade with the newly formed Spanish-American republics, suggested that the United States join England in a protest against any European movement against these states. For this reason English historians often ascribe the invention of the "Monroe Doctrine" to Canning. Without waiting for the reply of the United States, Canning served notice to this effect on the French government.

In 1822 the United States recognized the independence of these republics. In 1823, moved further by the threatening attitude of Russia, which having acquired Alaska, presumed to exclude foreigners from the Pacific coast north of the 51st parallel, the United States, having declined the joint-action with England invited by Canning, made the memorable pronunciamento called, from the president then in office, the "Monroe Doctrine." This doctrine was set

forth in the president's seventh annual message. It asserted that the United States considers the American continents as no longer subjects for any European colonial settlements, tho fully recognizing those already made. It further stated that any European intervention aimed against the Spanish-American republics would be considered as an unfriendly act toward the United States.

The "Monroe Doctrine" has played an important part in our foreign relations, and is still a matter of constant discussion. Tho European governments have frequently deferred to it, it is by no means a canon of international law; and its sole guarantee is the military power of the United States to enforce it. In view of the fact that our offensive military and naval powers have been insignificant it seems remarkable that we should have been able to command respect for it so long.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume X

Give a brief account of Jefferson's political views.
Pages 49-52, *and note.*

Mention the principal incidents of our first war with the Barbary states. *Pages* 56-58.

Mention the principal events of John Adams' administration. *Page* 62, *and note.*

Describe the Hamilton-Burr episode.
Page 52, *and note; note on Hamilton, Vol. IX, page* 436.

What were the Berlin Decree and the Orders in Council; and what was their effect on American history?
Pages 68-73, *and note, page* 131, *on the "Causes of the War of* 1812."

Describe Harrison's campaign against Tecumseh.
Pages 115-127.

What influence did Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun have in bringing on the War of 1812?

Pages 128-129, *and notes to page* 270.

What was the result of Hull's invasion of Canada?

Pages 248-252.

Describe the battles of Queenstown Heights, Lake Erie, the Thames, Lundy's Lane and Lake Champlain.

Pages 282, 306, 317, 328, 330.

Mention the principal naval duels of the war.

Pages 332-341.

What was the cause of the frequent British defeats on the sea?

Note on Warships, page 247; *Constitution and Guerrière. Page* 333.

Describe the capture of Washington. *Page* 349.

Describe the battle of New Orleans. *Pages* 397-419.

What treaty closed the War? *Page* 419.

How did the treaty of peace deal with the Causes of the War? *Note to page* 262.

The note to page 161 on the Causes of the War of 1812 may be used as the basis of an essay. The notes on Relative Forces, page 247; Warships, page 247; Lake Erie, page 306; Macdonough, page 330; *Constitution* and *Guerrière*, page 333; *Chesapeake* and *Shannon*, page 338, and the information given in the text pages to which these notes refer would supply ample material for discussion of the Naval Operations of the War. The sketch of the war given in the note to page 262, amplified by the text descriptions of the various battles, might be used as the basis of a detailed account of the land operations. The "Causes of the War of 1812," as set forth in the note to page 131, might be treated in an essay. The discussion of the early conflict between Federalists and Anti-Federalists, given in the Introductory note would provide suggestions for an essay.

SIXTH COURSE

Comprising Volumes XI, XII and XIII

OUTLINE OF THE SIXTH COURSE

Comprising Volumes XI, XII and XIII

From the Opening of the Mexican War to the Year 1906.

First Reading. Vol. XI, pages 1-73.

Beginning of the Slavery Agitation—Jackson's Administration—Canadian Rebellion of 1837—"Hard Cider Campaign."

Second Reading. Vol. XI, pages 74-136.

The winning of Texan independence from Mexico.

Third Reading. Vol. XI, pages 137-210.

Opening of the Mexican War—Taylor's Victories in the North.

Fourth Reading. Vol. XI, pages 211-293.

Buena Vista.

Fifth Reading. Vol. XI, pages 294-361.

Scott at Vera Cruz.

Sixth Reading. Vol. XI, pages 362-454.

Campaign from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico—Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo—California—The Mormons—The Monroe Doctrine.

Seventh Reading. Vol. XII, pages 1-75.

John Brown and Harper's Ferry.

Eighth Reading. Vol. XII, pages 76-145.

Calhoun and Nullification—Fort Sumter.

Ninth Reading. Vol. XII, pages 146-209.
The *Alabama*—Opening of the Civil War.

Tenth Reading. Vol. XII, pages 210-295.
Shiloh—*Monitor* and *Merrimac*—"The Trent Affair"—Emancipation Proclamation.

Eleventh Reading. Vol. XII, pages 296-365.
Alabama and Kearsarge—Vicksburg—Chickamauga—Chattanooga—Gettysburg.

Twelfth Reading. Vol. XII, pages 366-430.
Closing Campaign of the War—Assassination of Lincoln.

Thirteenth Reading. Vol. XII, pages 431-462.
Johnson and Reconstruction—Grant's Administration.

Fourteenth Reading. Vol. XII, pages 463-494.
Administrations of Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Cleveland and Harrison.

Fifteenth Reading. Vol. XIII, pages 1-105.
Cuba and the Cuban Rebellion.

Sixteenth Reading. Vol. XIII, pages 106-210.
Destruction of the Maine—Declaration of War against Spain by the United States.

Seventeenth Reading. Vol. XIII, pages 211-304.
Battle of Manila Bay—San Juan Heights.

Eighteenth Reading. Vol. XIII, pages 305-442.
Battle of Santiago—Porto Rico—War in the Philippines—Peace Concluded—Recent Events.

NOTES FOR THE SIXTH COURSE

Volume XI

Introductory Sketch of the History of Mexico.

In Volume II we left Mexico as it was when Cortez returned to Spain in 1540 for the last time. (See Note, Cortez, Vol. II, page 229.) In 1535 New Spain had been erected into a Spanish vice-royalty, in which was included not only the present Mexico, but also Florida, Texas, New Mexico, California, Central America to the southern boundary of Costa Rica; and the Spanish West Indies and East Indies, including the Philippines. Later the authority of the viceroy of New Spain was restricted to Mexico and the territories within the present United States.

These viceroys ruled with great splendor and, for the most part, with corresponding inefficiency and oppressiveness. The mother country established monopolies in all forms of trade, wrung vast sums out of the country in taxes, and suppressed all progress among the native-born inhabitants. Consequently, when Spain itself had fallen beneath the heel of Napoleon, the country was ripe for revolt; and in 1810 a priest, Hidalgo of Costilla, headed an insurrection. Successful for a time, his wretched rabble was scattered by Spanish troops and he was shot in 1811. The rebellion was carried on by Morelos, who won several signal successes against the Spaniards, until defeated by Iturbide in 1814. The Spanish power seemed to have completely reasserted itself, when in 1818 Vicente Guerrero beat the royal troops and became the head of the revolutionary party.

In 1820 a liberal revolution took place in Spain. In 1821 Iturbide, then in command of the Spanish forces in the south, proposed his "Plan of Iguala," by which Mexico was to become independent, with a Spanish Bourbon

prince as king. The Mexicans took to the project with enthusiasm; Iturbide and Guerrero marched on Mexico City, and O'Donaju, the last Spanish viceroy, accepted their conditions. The Spanish king, however, rejected the plan and declared the Mexicans rebels. In 1822, Iturbide succeeded in making himself emperor.

The republicans, dissatisfied by this arrangement, put a sudden end to the empire; and in 1824 Guadalupe Victoria became the first president of the republic of Mexico.

At the close of Victoria's administration in 1828, Santa Anna, who had been the chief agent in the downfall of Iturbide, again came to the front, and dominated Mexican politics for twenty years, through a series of events comprehensible only to a Latin-American. It would be tedious to follow his devious career of intrigue and violence.

In 1836 Santa Anna was captured by Sam Houston at the head of the Texans who had seceded from Mexico, and he bought his release by signing a treaty, repudiated afterward by the Mexican government, acknowledging the independence of Texas. In 1838 the French seized Vera Cruz, tho gallantly defended by Santa Anna, who thus regained the popularity he had lost by the Texan treaty.

The war with the United States which developed out of the Texan secession, occurred at a time when internal troubles were rife in Mexico. During the two years of the war (1846-47) there were no less than twelve changes in the chief authority. To paraphrase Lincoln's famous saying, the Mexicans seemed to have chosen the middle of a turbulent stream as the place for a horse fair—a fact which explains the comparative ease of the American conquest in a country that might have been made absolutely impassable to an invading army.

After the disastrous close of the war with the United States, the irrrepressible Santa Anna retired; but came again to the fore, and in 1853 proclaimed himself perpetual dictator, with the title of "supreme highness."

In 1855, the liberals got rid of Santa Anna. General Comonfort succeeded to the presidency, and began an attack on the power of the church. In 1857 the present constitution was adopted. The struggle was continued by President Juarez, a full blooded Indian; and a civil war, "the Reform War," terminated by the victory of Juarez's forces at Calpulalpam, raged from 1857 to 1860.

The exhaustion of the country forced Juarez in 1861 to declare the suspension of payments on Mexico's foreign debt for two years, which brought about a combined demonstration by France, England and Spain. Napoleon III. took advantage of this opportunity to carry out his scheme of making Mexico an empire for the Austrian archduke Maximilian, becoming aware of which, England and Spain withdrew the forces they had sent against Mexico.

In 1864 a large French army seated Maximilian on the throne of Mexico; but it soon became evident that the French arms were the sole support of the new emperor, notwithstanding his admirable qualities and his efforts to ingratiate himself with his unruly subjects. Juarez maintained resistance, and in 1866, the American civil war having come to an end, the threatening attitude of the United States brought about the abrupt withdrawal of the French troops. Maximilian resolved to remain in Mexico, but was captured and shot in 1867. His wife, the princess Charlotte of Belgium, became insane. Thus terminated one of the piteous tragedies of history.

Juarez was president of the republic until his death in 1872. Since 1877 the history of Mexico has been the history of Porfirio Diaz, who has been nominally president but really dictator, ever since 1884. Under his sagacious statesmanship Mexico's advance in material prosperity has been remarkable.

As an item of interest, we may note that the odd design on the Mexican flag and seal of an eagle with a snake in its beak perpetuates the ancient Aztec tradition that the

founders of their empire fixed on the islands in the valley of Mexico as the location of their settlement (about 1325 A. D.) on beholding the divinely-given sign of an eagle perched upon a cactus, strangling a snake in its beak.

Page 32. Second War for Independence.

The War of 1812 is frequently spoken of as the "Second War for Independence." The meaning of the phrase is to be found in the fact that the war put an end to hampering colonial traditions, and terminated the period in which American affairs had been largely influenced by conditions abroad.

Page 33. Jackson.

While Jackson was personally upright, he was often made use of by designing politicians, and he must bear the responsibility of having introduced into government the nefarious "spoils system," which still is the bane of American politics. He personally insisted, as stated in the text, that men appointed to office should be "honest and capable," but in replacing the six hundred and ninety office-holders who were removed in the first year of his administration (as against seventy-four in all the administrations which had preceded his) many unqualified persons were appointed and most of them received their places for partizan services. "To the victors belong the spoils of the vanquished," (the spoils, of course, being government offices and patronage) was the malign doctrine which Jackson put into effect on a wholesale scale. There are now hopeful indications of a tendency to put an end to this debauchery in our government service.

Page 36. South Carolina and Nullification.

The thriving condition of American shipping previous to the close of the war of 1812 was due chiefly to the fact that the deadly struggle between England and Napoleon

had made it impossible for ships bearing any other flag to float. When the Napoleonic wars came to an end, other nations reentered the carrying trade, and our foreign shipping began the decline which has resulted in our practical effacement as a factor in international shipping.

The close of the war also "dumped" upon our markets a vast quantity of previously pent-up English goods, which seriously damaged the growing woolen, cotton and iron industries of New England into which the war had diverted capital and enterprise. In 1816 a counteracting protective tariff was imposed, which was at first favored by the south. Later, however, the south, viewing with jealousy the rapidly growing prosperity of the north, became exceedingly hostile to the protective system, and thus a new cause of dissension arose.

In reality, however, the tariff seems to have done the south little or no injury, while it greatly stimulated the growth and prosperity of the north and west. It was slavery that blighted the south; but her statesmen, instead of recognizing her evil as internal, chose to fix upon the tariff as the cause of the unequal growth of the country. In 1828, after the passage of the well-named "tariff of abominations," which was purposely designed so that it would incur the enmity of both parties and thus be defeated, but which passed, to the astonishment of its concoctors, the state of South Carolina accepted as a declaration of its principles, an "Exposition and Protest," drawn up by John C. Calhoun. This document declared that the state, by virtue of its position as a sovereign member of a union, created by a compact between the states composing it, had the right to declare any law passed by the national government "null and void within the limits of the state" until such time as state conventions in three-fourths of the states should declare the law valid.

In 1832 a South Carolina state convention gave effect to the "Exposition and Protest" and prohibited the pay-

ment of duties under the tariff of 1828 as modified in 1832. This constituted the "Nullification" act, to which congress, responding to President Jackson's stern and vigorous proclamation, replied with the "Force Bill," which resulted as described in the text.

Page 39. Osceola.

Osceola was the son of an English trader by the daughter of a Creek Indian chief. He was born in Georgia, but, removing to Florida, became very influential among the Seminoles. By his craft, bravery and military ability he led his followers successfully until captured by treachery in the war against the whites which he had brought on by attacks made in revenge for the seizure, as a fugitive slave, of his wife, who was of mixed Indian and negro blood. The Seminole war cost the United States $50,000,000 in money.

Page 45. Canadian Revolt of 1837.

The Canadian revolt of 1837 in the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada was insignificant, tho it gave rise to important changes in Canadian history.

The provinces were organized in 1791, that of Upper Canada (now Ontario) being settled by people of British stock, largely loyalist exiles from the United States; while Lower Canada (now Quebec) was principally French. These provinces possessed legislatures in which only the lower house was elective, the crown appointing the governor, executive council, and upper house. Discontent with this form of government, unrest caused by various abuses arising out of it, and, in Lower Canada, racial antagonism, gave rise to rebellion in 1837. That in Lower Canada was led by Louis J. Papineau, who promptly fled to the United States. In Upper Canada, William Lyon Mackenzie, a Scotchman, and the first mayor of the city of Toronto, led

the agitation, proclaimed a provisional government and headed a small band of insurgents.

He was defeated in a trifling engagement with the governor's forces, and made his escape to the United States, where he found many active sympathizers. He took possession of Navy Island in the Niagara river, and established a provisional government.

The American steamer *Caroline* was used for carrying supplies to this band; and her daring destruction by a party of Canadians, as described on page 46, brought England and the United States to the brink of war. The United States asserted that the Canadians had invaded her territory in time of peace; while England contended that the destruction of the vessel was a justifiable act of war.

The acquittal in New York of a Canadian who was charged with complicity in the affair, cleared the threatening atmosphere. Mackenzie was sentenced to a year's imprisonment for violating the United States neutrality laws.

Meanwhile England had taken steps to rectify the evils complained of, the illustrious Earl of Durham being sent out as high commissioner. Upper and Lower Canada were united in 1841. A general amnesty for the rebellion of 1837 was proclaimed in 1849. In 1867 all the provinces of Canada were confederated as the Dominion of Canada.

Canada long seemed to be at a standstill, and large numbers of Canadians emigrated annually to the United States. In the face of many dreary years of discouragement, however, Canada persisted in vast and costly systems of public works. The Canadian Pacific railway was built in spite of prophecies that it wouldn't pay for its axle grease. Now the Grand Trunk railway is building a new transcontinental railway two hundred miles further north than the Canadian Pacific, and plans for gridironing the country with railroads are in preparation. Immigration is pouring into the great wheat-growing territory north of the international boundary line and east of the Rockies, and two new provinces of

vast area have been erected in this region. It is sometimes predicted that before many years our Canadian neighbor will be one of the great powers.

Page 47. Lord Ashburton.

Alexander Baring, Lord Ashburton, was the head of the famous banking house of Baring Brothers & Co. In conjunction with Daniel Webster he negotiated in 1842 the treaty commonly known as the "Ashburton Treaty," which finally fixed the northwestern frontier, left undecided by the treaties closing the Revolutionary war and the war of 1812.

A compromise boundary had previously been fixed in 1829 by the king of Holland, to whose arbitration it had been left, but neither party was satisfied by the award. The Ashburton treaty gave seven-twelfths of the disputed territory to the United States.

A not altogether creditable feature of the negotiations was the duplicity shown on each side in the concealment of maps favorable to the other's claims. These maps were afterward used on both sides of the water to soften the dissatisfaction which always follows a treaty in which territory previously held has to be relinquished. In Canada Daniel Webster's "trickery" in this connection is still often referred to, Lord Ashburton's trickery having been overlooked.

Page 50. Whigs and Democrats.

See Vol. IX, page 46.

In the "era of good feeling," as Monroe's second administration was called, the old federalist party had passed away; but during the administration of John Quincy Adams, a new party took shape, under the name of the national republicans, as opposed to the democratic-republicans (later democrats), who elected Jackson in 1828.

In 1834 the party which opposed Jackson were called

"whigs." They opposed what they considered executive usurpations on the part of the president in withdrawing the deposits from the United States bank. In general, they favored a broad construction of the constitution, internal improvements and a protective tariff.

They were successful in electing a president, Harrison, in 1840, tho neither of their real leaders, Clay and Webster, was put forward as a candidate. Tyler, who was elected as vice-president, and succeeded almost immediately to the presidency owing to Harrison's death, was not a true whig, and his administration was noted for dissension. In 1844 the whigs nominated Clay, who was defeated, and four years later they elected Taylor and Fillmore. At the time of the civil war the whig party broke up, the northern whigs joining the new anti-slavery party, the republicans; and the southern going over to the democrats.

The democratic party developed from the anti-federalists, who favored strong state governments as against a strong national government. When the single party which existed during the "era of good feeling" broke up, as already explained, the democratic-republicans were thoroughly organized by Jackson, professing similar principles to those of the former anti-federalist republicans. The southern section of the party being dominant, the democrats became the supporters of slavery at the time of the Civil war crisis. Grover Cleveland is the only president elected by this party since the war.

Page 76. Oregon.

The Pacific territory between 54° 40′ north, the southern boundary of the Russian possessions in America, and 42°, the northern boundary of the Spanish possessions, was called the "Oregon Country," and was jointly occupied by both England and the United States, pending a definite settlement of their conflicting claims. The party-cry of the democrats in 1844 of "fifty-four forty (54° 40′) or fight,"

came very nearly becoming a war-cry; but the two countries concerned wisely compromised their claims, and the Canadian boundary along the 40th parallel was extended from the Rockies to the coast; but curved down the strait of San Juan de Fuca so as to give Vancouver island to Canada.

Page 104. Iturbide.

See Introductory Note. Iturbide was banished after his overthrow in 1823; but, rashly venturing back to Mexico in 1824, was shot as a traitor. The emperor Maximilian adopted his grandson, whose mother was an American, as his heir. He fortunately escaped Maximilian's fate and became an officer in the Mexican army.

Page 105. Crockett.

David Crockett was an illiterate, but shrewd and witty backwoodsman, who served in congress for three terms as a representative from Tennessee. After his third term, he joined the Texan revolutionaries against Mexico, and was killed in 1836 at the siege of Alamo. "Davy Crockett's Coon," which, having heard of his wonderful marksmanship, supplicated him not to shoot and told him that he would come down from the tree in which he had taken refuge, is frequently used to point a tale.

Page 108. Passports.

When relations between two countries have become so strained that war seems inevitable, their respective ambassadors or other diplomatic agents ask the government to which they are accredited for passports guaranteeing them a safe passage out of the country.

Page 122, Vol. XI. West Point.

Grant, Lee, Jackson, Sherman, Sheridan, Longstreet, Thomas, Johnston, Early and many other conspicuous commanders of the Civil War were West Point men. The truth is that volunteers, except in guerilla operations, are

seldom of much value until they have undergone seasoning that virtually makes them regulars. It is also a fact that our militia have an unsavory military record. Washington commented bitterly on the conduct of the militia during the Revolutionary war. During the war of 1812 the British seemed to have a low opinion of them; for after Hull's surrender of Detroit, while they sent all the regulars to Montreal, they let the militia go. It takes many of our naval exploits to wipe out the shame of Bladensburg, where an army of militia took to its heels after the first onset of the enemy, whom they outnumbered by two thousand. The headlong flight of the Federal militia at the first battle of Bull Run exposed us to Lord Palmerston's jeering reference to "the unfortunate rapid operations of the Union army after Bull Run." Every true citizen should do what he can to bring about such changes in international sentiment as would make the present armaments of the world useless; but while our social fabric rests upon a military basis it is unsafe to foster the notion that a uniform and a gun are all that are needed to make a soldier.

Page 137. Mexican War.

The general plan of campaign in the Mexican War and its causes may be made clear in a few words.

The United States claimed the river Rio Grande as the southern boundary of Texas, while Mexico claimed it to be the river Nueces, about one hundred and twenty-five miles further north. Had the dispute been with a powerful country, we might have awaited diplomatic adjustment; but President Polk ordered General Zachary Taylor to cross the Nueces and later to advance to the Rio Grande.

The Mexicans, properly regarding this as an act of war, crossed the Rio Grande from the south, attacked Taylor and were beaten at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma. Taylor followed the Mexicans across the Rio Grande and occupied Matamoras.

Meanwhile President Polk had informed congress that "Mexico has shed American blood on American soil," which was true, and that "War exists, and exists by act of Mexico herself," which wasn't true.

After three months' delay, during which the United States tried to foment a revolution in the already sufficiently distracted country of the enemy, Taylor took the strongly fortified city of Monterey after hard fighting.

General Winfield Scott having been appointed to the chief command, stopped operations in the north and withdrew the greater part of Taylor's troops for the purpose of moving upon the Mexican capital from the port of Vera Cruz.

This greatly weakened Taylor, learning which General Santa Anna (who had lately succeeded in overthrowing the former president, Paredes) attacked him with greatly superior forces, but was beaten off at the battle of Buena Vista. Scott easily took Vera Cruz and marched upon Mexico City, which he carried after winning the battles of Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey and Chapultepec.

The conduct of the American troops in this war was in every way admirable. The Mexican disasters were chiefly due to their internal dissensions. Other reasons were their bad leadership, an incompetent general staff, a superabundance of generals made out of politicians, and antiquated weapons. The Mexican troops fought gallantly.

Page 173. Guerrillas.

Guerrillas are armed bands of irregular soldiers who carry on an independent warfare, chiefly by raids, surprises and ambuscades. When operating on their own ground, they are capable of inflicting great damage by cutting off small detachments from the main body of an invading army. The Boer war showed how extremely difficult guerrilla tactics are to meet.

Page 222. Mississippi Regiment.

The Mississippi Regiment, whose gallantry had much to do with turning the uncertain scale of victory at the battle of Buena Vista, was commanded by Colonel Jefferson Davis, later president of the Confederate States. Many of the commanders of the Civil War on both sides obtained their preliminary training in the Mexican war, among others, Grant, Lee, Thomas, McClellan and Jackson.

Page 229. Buena Vista.

Whittier's celebrated poem, "The Angels of Buena Vista," is based on an incident which occurred during this battle.

Page 338. Frémont.

John C. Frémont received the title of "The Pathfinder" for his important explorations in the Rocky Mountains and California. After participating in the conquest of California from Mexico, he represented the new state in the senate, and was the republican candidate for president in 1856, His military career during the civil war was not distinguished; and while in command of the western department he embarrassed Lincoln by a premature proclamation freeing slaves.

Page 338. California.

The Spanish Franciscan missions in California (see Note, Vol. IV, page 355) of which picturesque remains still stand, numbered twenty-one in the year 1823. They had acquired wealth and extensive lands, and had done something toward civilizing the Indians. It had been the intention of the Spanish rulers of Mexico to gradually make these mission settlements the centers of civil control of the country; and following out this policy they had founded towns, or *pueblos,* and divided upper California into administrative districts.

When Mexico became independent of Spain, California, tho nominally part of Mexico, also became practically independent. American settlers had gone into the country as early as 1826. Two parties began to contend regarding the ultimate destiny of the country—one for annexation to the United States; the other for independence under a British protectorate.

The war with Mexico decided the issue. On July 4th, 1846, California was declared independent by a party of Americans, who had been aided by John C. Frémont in the capture of the town of Sonoma. In August, 1846, California became a territory of the United States, and in 1850 a state, an extraordinary immigration and economic development having taken place in the meanwhile as the result of the discovery of gold in 1848.

Page 360. Narvaez.

See Note, Vol. II, page 334.

Page 363. Thermopylae of Mexico.

See Note, Lycurgus, Vol. VIII, page 403.

Page 411. Guadalupe Hidalgo.

By the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the United States acquired California, Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Nevada, portions of Colorado and Wyoming, and a definite title to Texas.

In 1853 the "Gadsden Purchase" modified the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo and established the Mexican frontier as at present. By this transaction the United States acquired, for $10,000,000, 45,535 square miles of territory, lying between the Gila river in Arizona and the present international line.

About 1,000,000 square miles of territory was added to the United States by the Mexican and Oregon treaties.

Page 416. Mormons.

Founded by Joseph Smith, Jr., at Fayette, N. Y., the Mormons, or, as they call themselves, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, after various emigrations and vicissitudes, brought about by local hatred of their peculiar beliefs and institutions, settled in considerable numbers in Utah, where they set up an hierarchical government.

The determination of the Mormon church to rule the territory, brought them into conflict with the United States authorities. In 1857 the Mormons perpetrated the Mountain Meadows massacre while carrying out their plan of preventing the entrance into the country of what they call "gentiles," or people not of their faith.

In the same year a United States army was sent into Utah on the ground that the Mormon leaders had assumed unlawful powers and were interfering with the federal courts. A semblance of civil war followed, and troops garrisoned Salt Lake City for several years; but the great civil war with the south prevented the government from taking decisive measures. After the building of the transcontinental railway, "gentile" emigration increased, and from 1882 to 1890 the United States government took a series of drastic measures to suppress the practise of polygamy and to destroy the political power of the Mormon church, by confiscating the greater part of its vast property, abolishing its corporation, suppressing the emigration company, through which emigrants were brought in to build up the Mormon state, and disfranchising polygamists, of whom numbers were imprisoned and fined. The church in 1890, after these severe blows, saw a great light on the question of polygamy, and declared its abolition. Utah was admitted to statehood in 1896, with a clause in its constitution forbidding polygamy. (See Note, Brigham Young, Vol. XII, page 86.)

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume XI.

What was the Missouri Compromise? *Page* 14.

What were the most important events of the administration of John Quincy Adams? *Pages* 29-32.

Tell something about Andrew Jackson and his administration. *Pages* 32-38; 42.

Describe the Seminole War. *Pages* 38-41.

How did the Canadian revolt of 1837 affect relations between the United States and England? *Pages* 45 *and note;* 46-47.

What was the Ashburton treaty? *Page* 47 *and note.*

Give a brief account of the Whig and Democratic parties. *Page* 50 *and note.*

Mention some incidents illustrating political methods in the early part of the 19th Century. *Page* 53.

What was settled by the Oregon Treaty? *Page* 76 *and note.*

Describe the events leading up to the entrance of Texas into the Union. *Pages* 103-109.

How was Texas annexed to the United States? *Page* 108.

What was the cause of the war with Mexico? *Pages* 108, 126 *and note* 136.

What were the causes of Mexican weakness? *Page* 161 *and note to page* 136.

Describe Zachary Taylor's appearance and manners. *Page* 137.

Describe the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma. *Pages* 177-188.

What brought about the Battle of Buena Vista? *Page* 214 *and note, page* 137.

Describe it. *Pages* 221-229.

How was the conquest of California effected? *Pages* 338-340.

Describe the siege of Vera Cruz. *Pages* 342-344.

Mention the chief battles fought by the Americans between Vera Cruz and Mexico City. *Pages* 365-384.

What were the provisions of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo? *Page* 411 *and note.*

Give an account of the filibustering expedition of Lopez against Cuba. *Pages* 414-420.

The student should write an essay on the Mexican War as a summing up of the contents of the greater part of Volume XI.

NOTES FOR THE SIXTH COURSE

Volume XII

Introductory.

With the acquisition of the vast domain brought under the sway of the United States by the Mexican war and the Oregon treaty, arose with redoubled force the question of the extension of slavery in the new states and territories which the Missouri Compromise had failed to settle. In 1846, during the early part of the Mexican war, the "Wilmot Proviso," prohibiting slavery in new territories, the purchase of which from Mexico was then under contemplation, failed of adoption by congress, but it marks the growth of a sentiment which later created the "free soil" party, and the great anti-slavery or Union party, the republicans.

The election of 1848 was complicated by this question, and several political parties came into the field. Taylor and Fillmore, the whig candidates, won. California at once requested admission to the union as a free state. In 1850 compromises framed by Henry Clay ("The Compromise Measures of 1850" or "Omnibus Bill") were adopted, admitting California as a free state, leaving open the settle-

ment of the slavery question in Utah and New Mexico, and enacting a stringent fugitive law.

This fugitive slave law, designed to facilitate the capture in the northern states of runaway slaves and their return to their masters, heated northern opinion against the south, and steps were everywhere taken to defeat its operation. One of the principal methods of violating it was the famous "underground railway" by which slaves in large numbers were regularly assisted across the line into free Canada. In 1852 appeared Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin," which poured vitriol into northern anti-slavery sentiment and maddened the southerners, toward whom, in large part, it was unjust.

In 1854 Stephen Douglas secured the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska act, organizing the territories in the region west of Missouri and Iowa and north of Texas, with the stipulation that these territories, on preparing for statehood should settle the slavery question for themselves, and declaring that the Missouri Compromise (page 14) had been superseded by the Compromise of Measures of 1850. This act thus placed a vast territory within the possibilities of slavery, and a tremendous outburst of indignation took place in the north.

The Kansas-Nebraska act enunciated the doctrine of "popular, or squatter, sovereignty" by which it was asserted that the settlers, or "squatters," in the new region had the right to decide upon their own form of government without interference from the national government. A war of emigration for supremacy in Kansas followed. The pro-slavery party got the upper hand by violence, and a small civil war, in which John Brown figured prominently, broke out. In 1857 a pro-slavery convention at Lecompton drew up a constitution for Kansas and submitted to a popular vote the question whether the constitution should be adopted with slavery or without it, the constitution being so drawn that whichever way the popular vote went Kansas should

be a slave state. A majority secured by violence and fraud was obtained for the constitution with slavery. The struggle continued and it was not until 1861 that Kansas came into the union as a free state.

Slavery had now become the vital issue in national politics, and various elements in the old parties opposed to slavery aligned themselves in 1854 in a new party, the republican. In the election of 1856, the "know-nothings" or "American party," which had been formed to secure America for Americans in a panic over the fancied danger from the increasing tide of foreign immigration which started about 1845, nominated former president Fillmore, who was also the candidate of the decaying whigs. The republicans, now embracing the old free-soil party (which had been formed in 1848 of both whigs and democrats who demanded that the new territories acquired from Mexico should be "free-soil" for free men), and the anti-Nebraska democrats and whigs (as were called those members of the old parties who opposed the Kansas-Nebraska act) nominated John C. Frémont. The democratic candidate, James Buchanan, won; but the republicans displayed great and unlooked for strength, and the old whigs and the know-nothings disappeared.

Immediately after Buchanan's inauguration the decision of the supreme court in the Dred Scott case hastened the crisis. This decision held that slaves were mere property, and as such were guaranteed to their owners by the constitution. Congress, therefore, had no right whatever to interfere with slave property in the territories; the Missouri Compromise had been an unconstitutional measure; and, if the supreme court were sustained, the anti-slavery party was hopelessly and finally defeated.

In 1858 an attempt was made by congress to force the Lecompton Constitution on Kansas; but Senator Douglas at the head of the "Anti-Lecompton democrats" opposed the measure, on the principle of "popular sovereignty."

The same year Abraham Lincoln was nominated for election to the senate, to oppose Douglas, then the most conspicuous democratic candidate for the presidency at the next election. Lincoln in a famous series of joint-debates, forced upon Douglas an attempt to reconcile the Dred Scott decision and popular sovereignty. In the course of the debates, the arguments to which Douglas was driven by Lincoln, made Douglas's presidential candidacy an impossibility to the slave-holding democrats; while Lincoln acquired a national reputation which secured his own nomination by the republicans in 1860. In his first speech in the senatorial campaign Lincoln made his bold statement that "a house divided against itself cannot stand," and that the union could not endure half-slave and half-free. A great speech by Seward the same year, in the course of which he spoke of the conflict between slavery and freedom as inevitable and irrepressible, expressed the rapidly concentrating opinion of the north. At the same time the south clamored for the full advantages of the Dred Scott decision, and in 1858 president Buchanan sent a message to congress urging the acquisition of Cuba and Central American territory. The north viewed this as a policy for acquiring further slave territory and its hostility deepened.

In 1859 John Brown made a quixotic attempt to precipitate a movement for freeing the slaves by seizing, with a handful of followers, the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry. He was executed, but the south took fire at what it interpreted as a northern attempt to incite the ever-dreaded servile insurrection. With public opinion thus at fever heat—the south bent on a policy of extending slavery (as suicidal economically as politically) and the north grimly determined to set bounds to it—the election of 1860 came on.

At the nomination conventions which preceded this election, the arrogant demands of the slave interests split the

democratic party. The southern extremists withdrew and nominated John C. Breckenridge, while the moderate northern democrats (who were willing to make very considerable concessions on the matter of slavery) nominated Stephen Douglas. The "constitutional union party," formed out of the know-nothing party and the remains of the disrupted whigs, nominated John Bell, the governor of Tennessee, on a rather vague platform declaring for union and support of the constitution. The newly formed republican party put forward Abraham Lincoln as a compromise candidate, passing over Seward and Chase as too pronounced and conspicuous for party purposes, and declared for a protective tariff and for the suppression of slavery in the territories, while leaving the states liberty to deal with slavery as they chose.

Lincoln was elected by a majority of the electoral votes, tho receiving a minority of popular votes. Lincoln's inaugural address provoked widely varying criticism; but history has confirmed the comments of the *New York Tribune,* then edited by Horace Greeley, when in its issue of the day following it stated: "To twenty millions of people it will carry the tidings, good or not, as the case may be, that the Federal Government of the United States is still in existence, with a Man at the head of it." Lincoln's election was far from being an abolitionist triumph; but it was so interpreted by the south, and it gave the signal for secession.

Page 63. John Brown.

Previously to his settling in Kansas in 1855, John Brown had led an obscure life. He threw himself violently into the struggle for control of the territory of Kansas—a struggle waged between the free-state and the pro-slavery parties, and distinguished himself by his bravery and ferocity. In 1856 he massacred five of his adversaries at Pottawottomie; and at Ossawatomie, the same year, he gained a

victory against great odds over a band of Missourians who had invaded Kansas. For his bloody lawlessness he was outlawed, and a price put on his head by the government.

He maintained relations with northern abolitionists, by whom he was supplied with means to accomplish his Virginia plot, tho the people who aided him seemed to have no clear idea as to his intentions (which, indeed, were hazy enough to himself) and thought he contemplated action in Kansas. In 1859 he moved to Virginia and took up his residence near Harper's Ferry, preparatory to giving the signal for a movement which should free the slaves—just how he expected to accomplish this without a slave insurrection (which he does not seem to have intended) is not apparent. Brown was the father of many children, and several of his sons joined him in his exploits.

John Brown's raid at once terrorized and inflamed the south and urged its leaders to propose extreme measures for the safe-guarding of slave interests.

Page 78. Walker.

William Walker, a native of Tennessee, after an unsuccessful raid into Mexico in 1853, organized a filibustering expedition against Nicaragua in 1855 with the intention of establishing a slave-holding state. He succeeded in making himself president, but was soon expelled. A later attempt against Honduras resulted in his being turned over to the Honduras government by the captain of a British war vessel and shot in 1860.

Page 78. "Ostend Manifesto."

See Volume XI, page 452.

The "Ostendo Manifesto" was drawn up at Ostend, Belgium, in response to President Pierce's request to the American ministers at London, Paris and Madrid to meet and arrange a policy regarding Cuba, upon which, encouraged by the acquisition of Texas, the slave states had designs.

This manifesto favored the purchase of Cuba from Spain by the United States, but received no official endorsement in the United States. Buchanan was one of the ministers concerned.

Page 86. Brigham Young.

Brigham Young, the second president of the Mormon church, was the most notorious exponent of polygamy, the doctrine of which he proclaimed in 1852. He practised what he preached; and on his death he left twenty-four widows and forty-four children. The divorce case of "wife No. 19" against him is celebrated. He was also at the head of the murderous "Danites," or "Destroying Angels," a secret organization pledged to take vengeance on the "gentiles" and to support the heads of the Mormon church in all things whether right or wrong. He headed the final migration of the Mormons from Nauvoo, Ill., to Utah in 1846, was elected governor of the "State of Deseret" in 1849, and appointed governor of the territory of Utah in 1850, in which office he became supreme through his control of the church officials. He instituted "blood atonement" in accordance with which the throats of apostates to the church were cut and their blood allowed to flow into the newly dug graves. In spite of an indictment for treason, Young died in peace in 1877, leaving a large fortune.

Page 91. Secession.

The author's statement to the effect that had the northern states nursed some great sectional grievance, they might have become secessionists instead of the south, is borne out by the historical fact of the "Hartford Convention" of representatives of New England states, which in 1814-15, disaffected because of the war with England, adopted resolutions of the same tenor as South Carolina's nullification doctrines, and threatened secession in disguised but unmistakable terms.

Page 95. Calhoun.

In fairness to Calhoun it must be stated that he was a thorough patriot and sincerely believed that the fatal principles he propounded with such amazing skill were those alone on which the union could be preserved. Calhoun was a fine orator, and the debates in which Webster, Clay and Calhoun took part seem titanic as compared with the commonplaceness of senatorial utterances to-day.

Page 96. Buchanan.

Buchanan's shuffling conduct in the Civil War crisis is in striking contrast with that of Jackson in 1832, when South Carolina was threatening secession. "If a single drop of blood shall be shed in South Carolina in opposition to the laws of the United States," said that resolute old soldier, "I will hang the first man I can lay my hand on, on the first tree I can reach." And he followed up his threat by steps that left no doubt that he would instantly crush a local outbreak with the whole force of the United States. Lincoln brought the same determination to Washington, but the movement had been allowed to gain tremendous momentum before he took office.

Page 136. Stephens.

Alexander H. Stevens, on returning to Georgia, after the meeting of the convention at Montgomery which provisionally organized the Confederacy, made a speech in which he spoke of the foundations of the newly organized government as laid upon "the great truth that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery . . . is his natural and normal condition. This our new government is the first in the history of the world based upon this great physical, philosophical, and moral truth."

Page 148. "No. 290."

The *Alabama* was known as "No. 290," because she was so numbered on the list of steamers constructed by Laird & Son, of Birkenhead. The Lairds are still among the largest builders of engines and armored ships in the world. The *Alabama's* crew was almost wholly British. Judicial proceedings had been taken to prevent her sailing; but she escaped on the pretext of making a trial trip.

Page 166. Hotspur.

"Hotspur" was the surname given to Sir Henry Percy, a famous English military leader against the Scotch and French. His nickname indicates his recklessness and impetuosity. He is one of the heroes of the celebrated old ballad of Chevy Chase. Hotspur was the son of the great Earl of Northumberland, and father and son became so powerful in the reign of Henry IV. as to almost overawe the crown. He perished in a rash revolt against the king.

Page 167. Attila—Coriolanus—Catiline.

Attila, surnamed the "Scourge of God," was the terrible king of the Huns who devastated Europe in the middle of the 5th Century.

Coriolanus was a Roman conqueror, who, according to the legend, in order to avenge himself for injuries inflicted upon him by his countrymen, led a foreign army against Rome, and was only deterred from assaulting his native city by the prayers of his mother and wife at the head of a band of the noblest matrons of Rome.

Catiline was the conspirator against Rome at whom Cicero thundered his famous oration.

Page 171. Copperheads.

The northerners who opposed the prosecution of the war against the south, in the belief that its conquest was a military impossibility, were nicknamed "copperheads,"

from the venomous snake of that name, which, tho a member of the rattler family, strikes without warning.

Page 183. The Civil War—Campaigns of 1861 and 1862.

The day following the capitulation of Fort Sumter, April 15, 1861, President Lincoln issued a call for 75,000 volunteers; and the question of the preservation of the Union (the slavery issue which had precipitated the conflict was then of minor import) was committed to the arbitrament of civil war.

In order to prevent the confederates from massing their forces and advancing against Washington, the union army attempted to gain possession of the important railroad junction at Manassas. The confederates under Beauregard met them at Bull Run and threw them back upon Washington in utter route. The chief command of the union forces was then given to General McClellan, who previously had been successful in a minor campaign in West Virginia. McClellan proceeded to drill the army of the Potomac, thus contributing to later successes, but his subsequent operations were very dilatory.

The battle-ground in the west lay in the region bounded by the Cumberland, Tennessee, Ohio and Mississippi rivers. In 1861 General Grant secured the mouths of the Tennessee and Cumberland. Early in 1862 General Thomas gained possession of the upper Cumberland valley by a victory at Mill Spring. General Grant captured two important forts, Donelson and Henry, which had been built by the confederates, one on the Cumberland and the other on the Tennessee, at points where the two rivers come very close together, in order to block their passage after the union forces had gained the mouths of these streams. At Fort Donelson, 15,000 men surrendered with 40 guns. These victories threw the southern forces back upon the line of the railway from Memphis to Charleston, the possession of which was of strategic and economic importance to the Confederacy.

The new commander-in-chief of the union armies in the west was General Halleck, under whose orders Grant advanced to Pittsburg Landing, near which he fought and won the stubbornly contested field of Shiloh, where the two armies lost 24,000 men. General Halleck then united his forces and seized Corinth and Memphis. At the same time Shiloh was being fought, General Pope and Commodore Foote captured Island No. 10 in the Mississippi. That stream was thus cleared as far south as Memphis. In the same month (April) Admiral Farragut took New Orleans and choked the outlet of the Mississippi.

General Braxton Bragg, the new confederate commander in the west, invaded Tennessee and Kentucky as far as Louisville, but was forced to fall back to Chattanooga, sustaining the defeat of Perrysville on the way. In December he again advanced and was defeated in the severe battle of Murfreesboro.

In March, 1862, McClellan transported the army of the Potomac by water to the peninsula formed by the York and James rivers, with the purpose of avoiding the rivers which lie athwart the route of an army advancing upon Richmond from the north. Just previously to McClellan's arrival occurred the famous duel between the *Virginia (Merrimac)* and the *Monitor*, after the *Virginia* had inflicted great damage on the union vessels in Hampton Roads.

McClellan found the peninsula fortified and slowly made his way to within ten miles of Richmond, and at Fair Oaks defeated the confederates. Robert E. Lee, the great confederate commander, was then joined by "Stonewall" Jackson who had been fighting a brilliant campaign in the Shenandoah valley. In June, as a result of McClellan's famous "change of base," there followed the terrible "Seven Days' Battles," terminating with a union victory of Malvern Hill on July 1st. The fighting as a whole was favorable to the federals, but the peninsula campaign was nevertheless a failure.

Lee then threatened Washington and McClellan was ordered to withdraw from the peninsula and support Pope, who was in command of the army defending the capital. Lee's disastrous defeat of the federals under Pope at the second battle of Bull Run followed. Lee crossed the Potomac and invaded Maryland. McClellan, who was again in chief command, met him at Antietam, where his vastly superior forces sustained great losses in throwing back the confederates. McClellan was then superseded by Burnside. The day before Antietam, "Stonewall" Jackson captured Harper's Ferry with over 11,000 men.

Lincoln availed himself of the success of Antietam to announce his intention of proclaiming in the following January negro emancipation in the states which should then be in rebellion.

In November the new commander-in-chief, Burnside, led the federals against the fortified heights at Fredericksburg. This futile attempt was repulsed with fearful slaughter.

Page 233. Fort Donelson.

Besides the strategic importance of the capture of Fort Donelson and Fort Henry in opening the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers to the federal forces, the operations at Fort Donelson had a momentous influence on the war by drawing the attention of the president and the nation at large to the dogged brigadier who took it. When the confederate commander inquired of Grant on what terms the garrison might capitulate, Grant replied: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." Grant's initials, U. S., were at once popularly asserted to stand for "Unconditional Surrender." Thenceforward Lincoln, to whom a man who not only proposed but did immediately move upon the enemy's works, was a precious discovery, followed Grant's career with close attention, and

when the time came, made him a lieutenant-general and commander-in-chief.

Grant, however, had many enemies and constant attempts were made to undermine him. Rumors of his liking for whisky troubled some people. To this complaint Lincoln whimsically inquired what kind of whisky it was he drank, adding that he should like to send a barrel of it to some of his other generals.

Grant's name was originally Hiram Ulysses; but through an error it was recorded on the roster at West Point as Ulysses Simpson, and as such he allowed it to remain.

Page 234. Pea Ridge.

The battle of Pea Ridge was fought in Arkansas, near the Missouri boundary. It was the first federal victory west of the Mississippi and it secured control of Missouri to the union forces.

Page 236. Shiloh.

In connection with the criticisms regarding the battle of Shiloh made on this page, it is well to remember that Grant in his official report stated of Sherman: "To his individual efforts I am indebted for the success of that battle." The cause of the confederate defeat at this battle seems rather to have been the death of their brilliant commander, Albert Sidney Johnston (not to be confused with the other distinguished Johnston, Joseph E., who fought throughout the war). Johnston was killed at a critical moment of the battle while leading a charge, after he had driven back Grant's army with great loss from Shiloh church to Pittsburg Landing. Beauregard, who succeeded him, fell back after a few hours of hesitation, and Wallace and Buell coming up during the night, the union forces were able to drive the rebels back on Corinth the next day.

Page 272. The British Attitude during the Civil War.

The attitude of the British official classes toward the United States during the early part of the Civil War verged upon hostility. This has since been the cause of sincere regret on England's part, and she has made persistent efforts to atone for it; as for example in the Spanish-American war, when her avowed determination to side with the United States alone prevented us from encountering the exceedingly grave menace of a European coalition in aid of Spain.

One author's explanation of the cause of British hostility at this time, however, does not seem adequate. He says that "it is a singular fact that, tho England had been sneering at the United States for half a century because of the toleration of slavery, yet when the south went to war she secretly espoused her cause." We must, in fairness, however, remember that in Lincoln's inaugural address of 1861 he had expressly declared that "he had no purpose, direct or indirect, nor had he any inclination to interfere with the institution of slavery in the states where it existed." It is further pointed out that the Emancipation Proclamation was not issued until the war had been in progress for a year and a half; so that the impression was prevalent in England that the north was insincere in its attitude toward slavery. Many Englishmen, also, considered that the southern states had a right to secede if they wanted to—an opinion which was held by a considerable number of people even in the United States.

It is explained further that at the outset of the war two events occurred which colored English opinion—one was the battle of Bull Run, and the other was the "Trent affair." (See following note.) The deplorable conduct of the union militia at Bull Run convinced Englishmen that the northerners were just what the southerners said they were, "a cowardly lot of shopkeepers" who were sure to be beaten by the bold and soldiery southerners. That was before the days of cables and express steamers, and

England was supplied with the most grotesque accounts of the progress of the war. Up to the very day that Lee surrendered, England was still being regaled by the public press with accounts of southern military prodigies and speculation was widespread as to how long the union would last under Lee's blows.

This is not so surprising, however, when we remember that the democrats nominated McClellan against Lincoln in the presidential election of 1864 on a platform which declared the war a failure. Moreover, America at that time was a very vague and remote country to the average Englishman, and it was quite often supposed that the Mississippi river divided the north from the seceding states.

The irritation caused by the "Trent affair" was by no means confined to this side of the water. It was, in the first place, a wanton assault on a British ship and tho Lincoln, with that splendid good sense that distinguished his statesmanship, promptly disavowed the act, it was nevertheless applauded by the secretary of the navy and by a vote in the house of representatives. Public meetings also, as usual, did their best to add fuel to the flames, with the result that preference for the south in England was intensified by animosity toward the north.

It is, however, not a fact that the majority of Englishmen were southern sympathizers. The most conspicuous, and the noisiest part of the nation certainly was sympathetic—London and its clubs, the aristocracy, and the army and navy. But, strange to say, in that part of England on which the south counted to turn the scale in its favor, the great manufacturing counties, and in the democratic industrial centers, public opinion was strongly against slavery and with the north. Distress was acute and widespread on account of the shutting off of the supply of cotton; but the workingman whose employment depended on the cotton supply, could not be brought to countenance any plan to

recognize the south and raise the blockade that had reduced him to misery.

The arch-enemy of the north in Europe was the emperor Napoleon III., who, wrong as usual, was finally convinced that the union was on the point of disruption. He persistently but vainly endeavored to induce England to join him in recognizing the southern confederacy; but, whatever public opinion may have been, the official attitude of England was correct throughout the war, save only in her exceedingly damaging passiveness toward the equipment of confederate cruisers in English ports. Napoleon III., however, was so certain that the United States was a thing of the past that he set up an empire in Mexico (see Introduction to Vol. XI), which he hastily abandoned at the sharp command of the United States after the Civil War was over.

It may be said that English public opinion was divided pretty evenly during the Civil War. Both south and north found eminent supporters. Lord Palmerston, Lord John Russel, Mr. Gladstone, and Lord Derby were among those who leaned toward the south; while the Duke of Argyle, Richard Cobden, John Bright, Sir George Lewis, John Stuart Mill, Goldwin Smith, and Lord Stanley were among the friends of the north. On the whole, the United States found a much larger percentage of sympathizers in England than England would find in the United States were she placed in a similar position, let us say, by a threatened secession of Ireland.

Page 273. The Trent.

The "Trent Affair" gave rise to the most striking manifestation of the unfriendliness of the British governing classes to the United States. The act of Captain Wilkes of the *San Jacinto* in forcibly removing the confederate envoys, Mason and Slidell, from a British ship was undoubtedly a flagrant violation of the very principles of the immunity from search of neutral vessels for which we had

gone to war in 1812; but the suddenness with which England pounced upon the first opportunity for opening a breach, and the peremptory tone with which she ordered the release of the envoys, convinced the north that she was only looking for an excuse to interfere; and this deeply embittered the American feeling against her. The effect of the act in heating English opinion against the north was dealt with in the previous note.

We should remember, however, that England, unfriendly as her attitude was in this instance, and injurious as was her failure to prevent the equipment of southern vessels in her ports, did actually refrain from availing herself of a rare opportunity of settling up with us the ill turn we did her in the war of 1812. At that time, England was involved in a life-and-death struggle with Napoleon; and it was only the feebleness of our resources which rendered the unkind blow we dealt her comparatively harmless. So we should now let one old score offset the other, and accept frankly the sincerely proffered friendliness of the nation with which we are closely linked by every tie of race, language, literature, thought, and custom.

Page 338. The Civil War—Campaign of 1863.

The early part of the year 1863 was marked by Grant's masterly operations against the heavily fortified city of Vicksburg, culminating in its capture on July 4th, with 30,000 men under General Pemberton. A concerted attack by land and water late in 1862 had failed. Sherman was repulsed with great loss, and Grant's line of communications were cut in his rear, forcing a retirement. Grant, however, with that bull-dog pertinacity which characterized him, persisted in his attempts. He tried plan after plan, but the confederates, with the advantage of position, baffled him. At last he got to the rear of the city and, after fighting a series of successful engagements with the enemy, was repulsed in a general assault on the city on May 19th.

He then began regular siege operations, bombarding the city from land entrenchments and gun-boats in the river. The city surrendered when reduced almost to starvation, and the Mississippi river fell into complete control of the federals.

The disaster of Gettysburg befell the confederates almost at the same instant as that of Vicksburg. After Burnside's bloody repulse at Fredericksburg (see note, page 183), he was superseded by Hooker, who, in April began an attempt to turn the flank of Lee's army, which had lain at Fredericksburg facing the federals across the river Rappahannock. This movement concentrated Hooker's army at Chancellorsville, across Lee's line of communication. A characteristically swift march and sudden assault by Stonewall Jackson in the execution of his brilliant strategy, outflanked Hooker in turn on May 2d and 4th, and Lee with 60,000 men won a crushing victory over the union forces numbering 130,000. The death of Stonewall Jackson, accidentally shot by his own men, however, was more disastrous to the south than the loss of a battle. Thereupon Lee crossed Maryland and invaded Pennsylvania, hoping to deal the north a stunning blow. Hooker was superseded by Meade, who also crossed the Potomac, and came up with Lee at Gettysburg, where in a three days' battle, July 1-2, Lee failed to dislodge the union army from its strong position by a series of desperate assaults, culminating in Pickett's furious charge, and was forced to retire under cover of rain and darkness. Vicksburg and Gettysburg broke the backbone of the confederacy.

After Rosecrans' defeat of Braxton Bragg at Murfreesboro (see note, page 183), Bragg had been forced back, and was at last compelled to abandon Chattanooga. Twelve miles from Chattanooga, at Chickamauga Creek, September 19-20, Bragg attacked Rosecrans and would have utterly destroyed his army but for the stubbornness with which Thomas, the "Rock of Chickamauga," held the federal

left. Chattanooga was at once besieged by Bragg. Grant then assumed command of the federal forces and, November 23-25, after a series of extraordinary attacks, known collectively as the battle of Chattanooga, the fortified positions in the mountainous country occupied by the southern forces, among them that of Lookout Mountain ("the Battle Above the Clouds"), and Missionary Ridge, the confederates were driven back with great loss. This brilliant success won for Grant the rank of lieutenant-general and the chief command of all the Union forces.

Page 355. Dix.

Dorothea Dix, a noted author and philanthropist, was superintendent of hospital nurses during the civil war.

Page 372. Maximilian.

See Introductory Sketch to Vol. XI, and note on the British attitude during the Civil war, page 272.

The paragraph dealing with Maximilian suggests that there is something in the "Monroe doctrine" which forbids the establishment of a monarchy in America. On the contrary, any American state is free to establish any kind of a government it sees fit without any interference from us. The Monroe doctrine was invoked in the Mexican empire episode because France had forced an unpopular government on the Mexicans by armed intervention. Had the Mexicans freely accepted Maximilian as their emperor we could have had no possible quarrel with them.

Page 370. The Civil War—Campaign of 1864.

When Grant assumed chief command of the union forces in March, 1864, and went east to direct the campaign against Richmond in person, he left Sherman at Chattanooga to operate against Atlanta. Sherman was opposed by the able confederate commander, J. E. Johnston; but Sherman's superiority in force was such that he was repeatedly able

to outflank Johnston, who held him skilfully in check, and at last came close to Atlanta. Johnston was then, greatly to Sherman's satisfaction, superseded by Hood, who assumed the offensive and was beaten back upon Atlanta and finally out of the city (September 2). Sherman partly destroyed Atlanta, and leaving Thomas to hold Hood in check, started on his famous march to the sea, leaving a trail of devastation in his rear, and meeting no opposition worth mentioning. He occupied Savannah on December 21st.

Meanwhile Hood had struck north into Tennessee and came face to face with Thomas at Nashville. In spite of the urgent appeals of Grant and the government, Thomas obstinately remained inactive until he was fully prepared to give battle. Then he struck, and so crushing was the blow that Hood's army was utterly destroyed (December 15).

In May Grant began the murderous campaign against Richmond; Meade, the victor of Gettysburg, being in immediate command of the Army of the Potomac. Happily for Grant and the Union, the resources of the north were ample to supply the appalling drain of blood to which he subjected his forces; for in the Wilderness and at Cold Harbor he simply opened the veins of his armies. This campaign was a direct movement upon Richmond. In the Wilderness, near Chancellorsville, Lee met Grant and a frightful two days battle (May 4-6) ensued in which Grant lost nearly twenty thousand men and Lee about eleven thousand. Grant, however, was able to outflank Lee and press on to Spottsylvania Court House. Here Lee threw up strong works, around which desperate fighting raged from May 7th to 21st, the confederates losing more heavily than the union forces. Grant again resorted to flanking movements. He declined to attack Lee on the North Anna river, moved again by his flank, and again found himself confronted by Lee, strongly intrenched at Cold Harbor, ten miles from Richmond. Here Grant de-

livered a general assault. There is something particularly ominous about the name Cold Harbor, and the dreadful slaughter of the federal forces from June 1st to 12th makes it impossible to speak of it without a shudder. The confederate works were impregnable; and the federals in futile assaults upon them, lost nearly fifteen thousand men, while the confederates lost only seventeen hundred. The greater part of these losses was sustained in two days' fighting; during the great assault on the third the federals lost nearly six thousand men in ten minutes. Grant then crossed the James river and swung around on Petersburg, whither Lee, always able to move by shorter and better lines, had preceded him, and where Grant was forced (June 19th) to begin regular siege operations. From the Wilderness to Petersburg the union army had lost sixty thousand men, almost as many as composed Lee's entire army at the outset of the campaign.

Hoping to create a diversion, Lee sent Early against Washington, which was saved from capture only by Early's hesitation. Grant then sent Sheridan against Early. Sheridan was successful in several battles, the most notable of which was Cedar Creek, but gained a rather sinister reputation by his ravages in the Shenandoah valley. Having driven out the confederates and devastated the valley, Sheridan, in November, returned to Petersburg, where Grant lay during the winter.

On June 19th of this year the *Kearsarge* sank the *Alabama,* and in August Admiral Farragut defeated the confederate squadron in Mobile Bay, and, cooperating with land forces, took the city.

The end was now at hand, for the south was absolutely drained of men and money, and practically of food, for tho the crops were bountiful there was no metal nor materials available to maintain the railroads and other lines of distribution. The troops deserted in scores in response to appeals from starving families at home. The slaves

scandalized the abolitionists by loyally tilling the fields of their masters absent at the front. The close coast blockade maintained by the north had made the cotton crops, the staple resources of the south, worthless. So great was the demand for supplies that a ton of salt brought $1,700 in gold at Richmond; a ton of coffee sold for $5,500; and a bottle of brandy for $25 in gold. The paper currency of the confederacy had depreciated into practical worthlessness. These figures sufficiently explain the inducements to the perilous business of blockade-running, carried on chiefly by reckless British seamen, with the West Indies as a base. On the other hand, the north actually grew more prosperous and increased in population as the war went forward; and there seemed to be no limit to the resources which Lincoln loyally hurried forward at Grant's demand.

Page 394. Sherman.

In view of the fact that the north put 2,666,999 men into the field during the war, it is interesting to note that Sherman's estimate in 1861 of 200,000 men as necessary to finish the war in the west was received with derision and anger; and he was removed from the command of the department of Kentucky.

Page 397. The Civil War—Campaign of 1865.

The operations around Richmond, which forced Lee's surrender with his pitiful remnant of an army at Appomattox Court House, constitute the chief military events of the closing months of the war. Secondary operations were those of Sherman, who set his army in motion from Savannah on February 1st, and skilfully but ineffectually opposed by a small force under J. E. Johnston, made his way through the Carolinas to Goldsboro on March 21st.

In February, Grant began movements with the purpose of cutting off Lee's line of communications in the rear of Richmond. In March, Sheridan came up the Shenandoah

valley from Winchester, drove Early out of his fortified camp at Waynesboro, destroyed a vast quantity of stores and tore up miles of the railroad near Charlottesville, and joined Grant at Petersburg on the 27th. On the 25th, Lee had made a fierce but ineffectual onslaught on the federal lines before Petersburg. Grant then began the final movement. On April 1st, Sheridan severely defeated the confederates at Five Forks. This was a fatal blow, for Five Forks commanded the line of communication behind Richmond and Petersburg. The next day Grant made a general assault on Petersburg, and Lee's position being no longer tenable, he evacuated Richmond that night, his troops firing vast quantities of stores and munitions and destroying a large part of the city. President Lincoln entered Richmond with the victorious northern army. No less than fifteen great battles and many skirmishes had been fought for the possession of the confederate capital. Closely followed by the union forces, Lee fell back toward Lynchburg. He was joined at Amelia Court House by the confederates who had been driven out of Petersburg, whither he had ordered his supply trains. A misunderstanding as to this order carried his supplies toward Danville, and Lee was forced to lose precious time while his hungry troops foraged. At Deatonsville Sheridan destroyed Ewell's division, taking six thousand prisoners, while the main body of the fleeing confederates crossed the Appomattox river and made a stand. To Grant's suggestion that he now surrender, Lee replied that "the occasion for the surrender of the army of northern Virginia had not arrived." Sheridan moved swiftly forward and threw his troops across the line of retreat at Appomattox Court House. On Lee's flank and rear swarmed the oncoming federal forces. Further movement was impossible, and on April 9th Lee yielded up his 27,000 ragged and famished soldiers. Grant's terms were singularly magnanimous—the rebels were paroled and allowed to return to their homes

on giving up their arms, and were permitted to keep their horses. "If Grant is wise," the noble and astute Lincoln had said in his homely, telling way, "he will leave them their guns to shoot crows with and their horses to plow with." At Raleigh, on the 26th, Johnson surrendered to Sherman on the same terms. Jefferson Davis was captured on May 10th. On May 26th all of the last confederate army in the field (the Trans-Mississippi) which had not already deserted, was surrendered by Kirby Smith. The south had been trampled into ruin.

Page 410. Comparative Forces.

The fact that during the civil war the federal government put forces into the field almost equalling in numbers the total white male population of the south of all ages, must not be taken as the relative mathematical superiority of the north as a military power. In the first place, the unreckoned slaves performed many secondary services for the southern army, such as throwing up fortifications and driving supply trains, done by regularly enlisted soldiers on the northern side. The southerners, moreover, were fighting on the defensive side; and the Boer war has displayed how easily a small force, well entrenched, can hold a large invading army at bay in a rough country. It is likely that a general of the first rank, in Grant's place, could have emptied Richmond more by strategy and less by dead weight of numbers; but it is not possible to believe that any military genius, however great, could have forced so masterly a soldier as Lee from the Wilderness and out of Richmond without great superiority in forces. Several battles of the war were sheer squandering of human lives on the northern side: Fredericksburg and Cold Harbor for example; but, on the other hand, the battle of Gettysburg demonstrated that the south was not able to pay the cost of offensive warfare.

The confederate troops,—as was to be expected from

the peculiar form of southern civilization, based on the maintenance in subjection of an inferior race and the active superintendence of large bodies of slaves,—displayed greater military aptitude than the northern troops, recruited from shops, factories and farms. The confederates were also splendidly officered and led by a group of generals of extraordinary genius.

The stubborn resistance of the south is as great a phenomenon in history as is its sudden and complete collapse. Prussia, when utterly shattered and trampled in the dust by Napoleon in 1806, had so far recovered by 1813 as to turn upon the conqueror and contribute greatly to his overthrow in 1815. France in 1871 was conquered by Prussia and so heavy a fine imposed upon her that she was supposed to be ruined. Yet she at once entered upon a period of great prosperity. The southern states, on the other hand, sank instantly into a prostration and a lethargy in which the close of the century still found them. It is a canon of political economy that the material losses of war are quickly replaced. The south, however, had suffered more vital injuries than the mere loss of property. She was writhing beneath the ruins of her social system. Happily there are now abundant evidences of a better era in the southern states. A generation has grown up whose passions regarding the war are tempered by satisfaction that the union still exists. The south is entering upon a new industrial era; and the sorrows of the war are fading out into a soft twilight of memory and tradition.

Page 440. Belligerent Rights.

The extension of belligerent rights to the confederate states by England was a great cause of American hostility to England. This was due to popular ignorance as to what constitutes belligerent rights. This act of England's was brought about by the friends and not by the enemies of the north in Great Britain, with the purpose of making

Lincoln's blockade proclamation effective. Had the southern states not been recognized as belligerents, the hostile acts of all their ships would have been considered as piracies committed by United States vessels; and the United States would have been responsible in international law for such acts, and for any other injuries done by southern arms to the citizens and property of foreign nations. The United States by the act declaring the southern ports under blockade had herself recognized that a state of war existed; and a similar recognition on the part of foreign governments was both correct and necessary. The recognition of the confederate states as an independent government would have been quite a different matter.

Page 443. Tenure of Office Act.

The "Tenure of Office Act," violations of which formed the chief of Johnson's alleged "high crimes and misdemeanors," was repealed in 1887.

Page 445. Impeachment.

The most famous American impeachment case is that of President Johnson; the most famous English, that of Warren Hastings, of which Macaulay in his essay on Warren Hastings has left a brilliant picture. The last impeachment in England occurred in 1805, and the proceeding seems to have become obsolete in that country. In America, however, it is still an effective safeguard against official malfeasance. "High crimes and misdemeanors," according to the old English formula, are still cited in the charges in impeachment cases. Johnson was acquitted because the vote against him fell just short of the two-thirds required by the constitution. The quarrel between Johnson and congress is a discreditable episode in our history. Johnson, in the light of history, comes out of it much better than congress, whose reconstruction policy is a conspicuous example of the possibilities of vicious and tyrannous gov-

ernment on the part of a legislative body. Johnson's policy, for the most part, was Lincoln's; but Lincoln, unlike Johnson, would have had both the tact to evade and the strength to crush opposition to his policy.

Page 454. Immigration.

The author speaks of the "unprecedented" immigration of 1873 when 459,803 persons emigrated to this country. In 1898 the figures had fallen to 229,299; but since then they have risen with leaps and bounds, reaching the truly portentous total of 1,027,421 in 1905, with the prospect of still greater hordes to come.

Page 454. Carpet-Baggers.

The political adventurers from the north who swooped down upon the prostrate south to take advantage of the practical disfranchisement of the former voting population and the ignorance of the blacks in whom congress had vested the control of the country, were called "carpet-baggers," because the carpet-bag symbolized both the paucity of their worldly goods and the transiency of their abode in the south. These political brigands gained control of the legislatures of the states where the blacks were predominant and plundered them outrageously.

Page 462. Contested Election of 1876.

The contest over the presidential election of 1876, which inflamed party feeling to an alarming degree, was due chiefly to the unsettled condition of the south, from three states of which two sets of electoral certificates had been returned. The election in Oregon was also in controversy. The situation was such that if all the disputed votes were counted as republican, Hayes, the candidate of that party, would be elected; but the loss of one vote would give the election to the democratic nominee, Tilden. The constitution makes no provision for such a deadlock, and an elec-

toral commission consisting of five members appointed by the senate, five by the house of representatives and five by the supreme court were appointed to determine the count. This commission gave the election to the republican candidate. The fact, however, that this commission was composed of eight republicans and seven democrats, that the votes in the various points involved always stood eight to seven, and that the members of the supreme court voted in the same partisan spirit as did the mere politicians of the senate and house, was anything but creditable, and created a painful feeling. In 1887 congress provided for the future adjustment of such a difficulty by an act investing each state with the power of judicially determining presidential electoral contests arising within it.

By an act of 1866 the order of succession to the presidency in case of death or other disability was fixed as follows: secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of war, attorney-general, postmaster-general, secretary of the navy, secretary of the interior. The death of both president and vice-president might therefore give us an unelected president appointed by his predecessor. This act, of course, also established the order of precedence of the members of the cabinet.

Page 466. Silver Coinage.

In 1878 the "Bland Allison Silver Bill" became a law over President Hayes's veto. This act provided for the purchase and coinage of silver by the government at the value of 16 units of weight of silver to 1 of gold, at the rate of not less than $2,000,000 and not more than $4,000,000 per month. In 1890 another bill was passed increasing the minimum monthly purchase of silver by the treasury to 4,500,000 ounces. The price of silver, however, cannot be arbitrarily fixed any more than that of lead or leather, and in 1893 the embarrassment of the treasury with its

accumulation of depreciated silver was such that the law compelling the purchase of silver was rescinded.

The advocates of free silver as a cure for our economic ills, under the leadership of William J. Bryan, were defeated at the presidential election of 1896. In 1900 the United States came into line with all the other great commercial nations by adopting a gold standard.

Page 473. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, so called from John Clayton, the United States secretary of state, and Sir Henry Bulwer (brother of the famous author Lord Lytton), the British ambassador, who negotiated it in 1850. By this treaty the United States and England jointly guaranteed the neutrality of the canal across the Central American isthmus. It gave rise to disagreements, and was several times the subject of negotiation between the two countries. Finally, in 1901, it was abrogated by the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which gives to the United States an entirely free hand in the construction of the canal.

Page 474. "Sulked in his Tent."

During the early part of the Trojan war, according to the legend, Agamemnon, the leader of the Greeks, grievously offended the great hero Achilles, who gave way to a tremendous outburst of wrath. He spitefully refused to join his companions in the fight with the Trojans, and while he sulked in his tent the Greeks were defeated. Hence the frequent use of the expression "to sulk in his tent," in referring to the conduct of some person of great ability who from personal pique refuses to aid his associates in some undertaking.

Achilles, however, allowed his dear friend Patroclus to take his armor and lead his followers, the Myrmidons, against the Trojans; and when Patroclus was killed by

the Trojan hero, Hector, he sallied forth again, slew Hector in single combat, and dragged his body behind a chariot three times around the walls of Troy.

Page 490. Hawaii.

Hawaii was organized as a territory of the United States June 14, 1900. In April of the same year part of the Samoan group of islands came into the possession of the United States.

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume XII

Describe John Brown; his seizure of Harper's Ferry; and execution. *Pages* 59-75.

What influence did John C. Calhoun have in bringing on the civil war? *Pages* 76, 77, 91-95.

What was the Dred Scott decision? *Page* 78.

Describe the struggle between the free-state and pro-slavery parties for the possession of Kansas. *Pages* 80, 81.

What was the effect of the fugitive slave law? *Pages* 82, 83.

Did the abolitionists fairly represent conditions in the slave-holding states? *Pages* 84, 85.

Was the republican party abolitionist in its earlier stages? *Pages* 87, 89.

What was the effect of Lincoln's election? *Page* 93.

How did Buchanan's irresolution affect the duration of the civil war? *Pages* 96, 97.

What was the first southern state to secede? *Page* 98.

What was the attitude of conservative southerners toward slavery and secession? *Pages* 120, 121.

What was the radical view? *Page* 121.

Where was the *Alabama* built, and on what pretense was she got to sea? *Page* 148.

Describe the *Alabama's* early career. *Pages* 148, 164.

Sketch the campaign of 1861 and 1862. *Note, page* 183.

Describe the battle of Shiloh. *Pages* 234-255.

How were the confederate troops fed and clad? *Page* 262.

What was the "Trent Affair?" *Page* 273.

Discuss the British attitude toward the north and south. *Note, page* 272.

Give an account of Lincoln's abolition proclamation. *Page* 274.

Describe the encounter between the *Alabama* and the *Kearsarge.* *Pages* 301-314.

Sketch the campaign of 1863. *Note, page* 338.

What was the turning point of the war? *Page* 339.

What was the "Battle above the Clouds?" Describe it. *Pages* 341-353.

What act indicated the desperate straits to which the south was reduced? *Page* 371.

Who was the greatest commander of the war? *Page* 374.

Sketch of the campaign of 1864. *Note, page* 370.

Describe Sherman's march from Atlanta to Savannah. *Pages* 394, 395.

Sketch the closing campaign of the war. *Note, page* 397.

What were the losses sustained by both sides during the war? *Page* 410.

Describe the assassination of Lincoln by Booth. *Pages* 415-417.

What was Booth's fate? *Pages* 419-426.

Detail the circumstances leading up to Johnson's impeachment. *Pages* 433-443.

How were the *Alabama* claims adjusted? *Page* 451.

What was "carpet-bag government" in the south? *Page* 453.

Describe Custer's defeat by Sitting Bull. *Page* 457.

What was the Whisky Ring? *Page* 458.
What was the Clayton-Bulwer treaty?
Page 473 *and note.*
Narrate the events leading up to the annexation of Hawaii. *Pages* 487-492.
The Causes of the Civil War; John Brown; The Influence of Calhoun in bringing about Southern Secession; The Career of the *Alabama;* the Campaigns of the Civil War; Lincoln; and Reconstruction are among the subjects for essays for which volume XII provides material.

NOTES FOR THE SIXTH COURSE

Volume XIII

Page 248. Battle of Manila Bay.

The battle of Manila Bay was decisive, as it destroyed the Spanish naval forces on the east; but those forces consisted only of antiquated craft, which were unable to inflict any damage whatever on our ships, and they were contemptible when compared with the well-armed, modern fleet which we sent against them. Admiral Dewey is entitled to great credit for taking the chances of destruction from possible mines; but that danger once over, the remainder of the action called for little tactical skill, and the battle resolved itself into an exhibition of the high efficiency of the American gunners, and the utter imbecility of the Spanish fleet. It is belittling to Farragut to compare this action with Mobile Bay, where the enemy was strong and capable, and the chances desperate.

Page 337. Santiago.

While the gun-power of the American fleet at Santiago was overwhelmingly superior to the Spanish, standing in

the ratio of 6,720 to 4,827 pounds of metal per minute, the Spaniards made wretched use of the really excellent ships which they had; for they inflicted no damage worth mentioning upon any of the American vessels and succeeded in killing only one man and injuring ten others. A humorous American stated that the Spanish gunners "couldn't hit the broad, open face of nature!"

The battle afterward became the occasion of a prolonged and undignified squabble between the partizans of admirals Sampson and Schley as to which was entitled to the credit for the victory. The credit was claimed for Sampson, who was absent until the battle was nearly over, on the ground that he was the commander in chief; and for Schley because it was actually fought under his orders. The victory, however, was one of gunnery, not of strategy.

Page 430. Manila.

The capture of Manila was a little bit of a farce comedy, touched with tragedy through a misunderstanding; for it had been agreed upon between the Spanish and American commanders that Manila, having become untenable on account of its investment by the American land and sea forces and the native Filipinos who had joined the Americans, should be yielded up with only such show of resistance as would enable the Spaniards "to save their faces," as the Chinese say.

The Filipino leaders had been led to believe that the Americans would treat the Philippines as they had treated Cuba; and there was great indignation when it was learned by a clause in the treaty of peace that the United States had bought the islands from Spain for $20,000,000 and intended to keep them.

The Filipinos at once began what many look upon as a patriotic war against us. The capture of Aguinaldo, the Filipino leader, in March, 1901, put an end to organized resistance; and in July, 1902, civil government was estab-

lished in a portion of the islands; but desultory fighting still (1906) continues. Up to July, 1902, the war in the Philippines had cost the United States $170,000,000.

Page 431. Cuba and Puerto Rico.

Peace between the United States and Spain was concluded at Paris on December 10, 1898. The United States at once took over the administration of Cuba; but in December, 1901, the Cubans, having prepared for a stable government of their own, the United States withdrew its military governor, and Estrada Palma was elected the first president of the new republic.

The treaty of peace gave Puerto Rico to the United States. By act of congress which went into effect in May, 1900, civil government was established in the island. The legislature, by this act, comprises two houses—an upper, comprised of executive officers and five members appointed by the President of the United States; and a lower house, comprised of thirty-five members elected by the people. The island has a commissioner at Washington.

Page 431. Recent Events.

The Spanish-American war was the principal event of President McKinley's first administration. Domestic politics were largely concerned with the trust-question, our immense commercial expansion having given rise to portentous consolidations of capital.

In 1900 McKinley was renominated by the republicans for president, with Theodore Roosevelt as the candidate for vice-president. The democrats nominated W. J. Bryan and Adlai E. Stevenson, and placed a free-silver plank in their platform. They were defeated. In September, 1901, occurred the tragic death of the president at the hands of the anarchist assassin Czolgosz, during a general reception at the Pan-American Exhibition in Buffalo. Theodore

Roosevelt, the vice-president, succeeded, thus placing at the head of the government a striking, dominant and forceful personality.

The presidential election of 1904, resulting in the election of Roosevelt by sweeping majorities, was one of the most extraordinary personal triumphs in our political history. Under Roosevelt the struggle against the trusts has been continued with some success; but the Panama canal has dwarfed other features of the administration. Later the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, signed in November, 1901, cleared the way for the construction of the canal by the United States. A long discussion took place as to the choice of routes, one party advocating the route across Nicaragua and the other that across the Panama isthmus. A commission appointed by President McKinley first reported in favor of Nicaragua, but when the French company which had already begun work at Panama agreed to sell its property and concessions for $40,000,000, its offer was accepted and the Panama route decided upon. Troublesome negotiations were then entered upon with Colombia, in whose territory lay the isthmus. A revolution in Panama which created out of the isthmian territory a new republic, whose independence was recognized with startling promptitude at Washington, removed the last political obstacle to the construction of the canal across the isthmus of Panama; and the work of connecting the two oceans is now progressing with as much rapidity as could be expected in the early stages of so mighty an undertaking.

The settlement of the Alaskan boundary question in favor of the United States, by a board of arbitration in 1903, removed the last overhanging cause of contention between this country and Great Britain, and there are many evidences of more intimate and friendly relations between the various members of the great English-speaking race in all parts of the world.

Particularly gratifying to Americans after the terrible

war between Japan and Russia, was the conclusion of peace in 1905, by commissioners of those countries at Portsmouth, N. H. The success which attended the activity of President Roosevelt in bringing about this happy result is regarded as a notable diplomatic achievement; and the acclamation which attended this peace triumph is a very hopeful indication of an increasing recognition in international affairs of a truth that may be stated by a modification of Milton's noble lines:

Peace hath her victories,
Far more renowned than war.

And do not the growing tendencies toward arbitration and international friendliness point to a higher conscience descending upon nations? Perhaps they point to a juster social order, to the poet's vision of the oncoming future, a new Earth,

"When the war-drum throbs no longer and the battle-flags are furled
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world."

QUESTIONS

Comprising Volume XIII

Give a brief sketch of Cuban history up to the close of the Ten Years' War. *Pages* 88-105.

What events in Cuba aroused American sentiment against Spain? *Pages* 176-182.

Describe the destruction of the *Maine*. *Pages* 183-187.

What were the "Rough Riders," and who was their most distinguished officer? *Pages* 211-229.

Describe the battle of Manila Bay. *Pages* 234-248.

What noteworthy event is associated with the battleship *Oregon?* *Page* 250.

Describe the destruction of Cervera's squadron at Santiago. *Pages* 321-337.

Describe the storming of San Juan Heights. *Pages* 288-304.

How was Puerto Rico reduced? *Pages* 371-405.

Tell something about Cervera, Dewey, Shafter, Miles, Gomez, Marti, Garcia, Hobson, Sampson, Schley, Weyler, Blanco, Aguinaldo.

What were the results of the war with Spain? *Notes to pages* 430, 431.

The student should write a general essay on the Spanish-American War: its causes and consequences. An excellent exercise for advanced students would be to write an account of recent historical happenings from memory.

OCT 3 0 1935

E. Hawkins

Vol. 14
M987r
6489
Musick John R.
Reading Courses

973
M987r
v.14
Vol. 14
Musick, John R.
Reading Courses

6489